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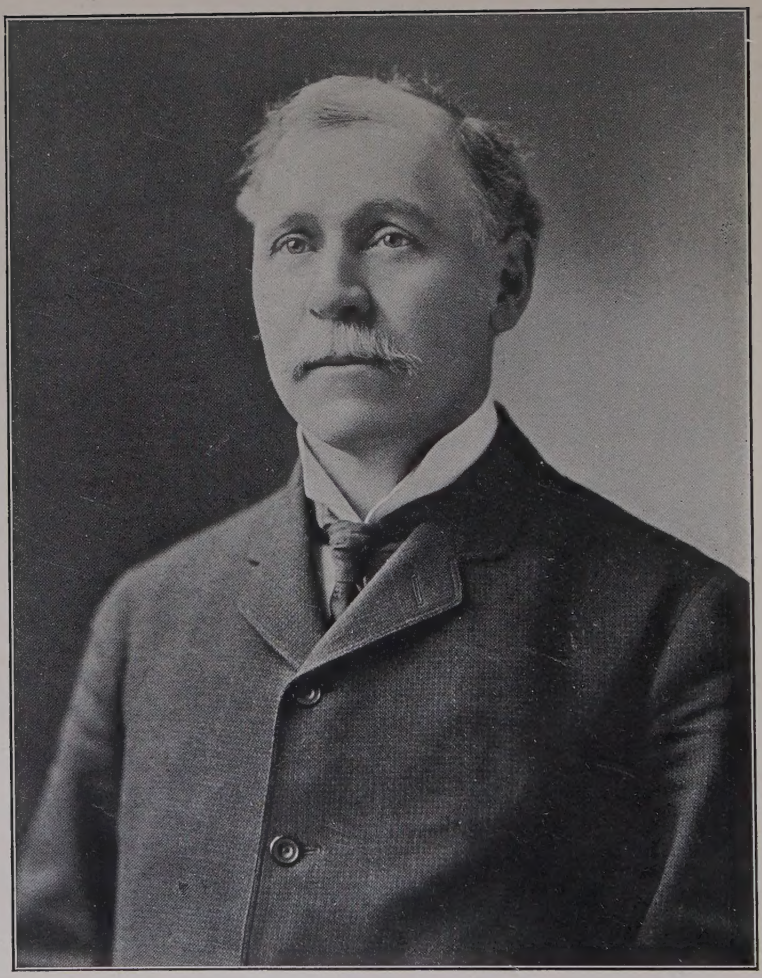

Saml G. Smith

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

Charities and Correction

AT THE

THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN THE CITY OF PORTLAND, OREGON, JULY 15-21, 1905.

EDITED BY
ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

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PREFACE.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction held its thirty-second annual meeting in the city of Portland, Oregon, July 15-21, 1905, Rev. Samuel G. Smith being President. This was the second time that the Conference has met on the Pacific Coast, the Sixteenth Conference having been held in San Francisco in 1889. The difference in the number of delegates from east of the Rocky Mountains who went to Portland this year and of those who went to San Francisco sixteen years ago, may be taken as a fair indication of the growth of the Conference during the period; fewer than ninety delegates crossed the mountains in 1889, while the number in 1905 was more than three hundred.

The program was replete with interest to perhaps an extraordinary degree. More time and attention than ever before was given to the care of the sick, the committee on that subject having two sub-committees, each of which presented a full report. The Committee on Children had also a sub-committee so that there were actually thirteen reports from regular committees and one from a special committee, that on Working Men's Insurance and Old Age Pensions. From these and other causes this volume of proceedings is almost as large as the one for 1904, but it is confidently hoped that the value of the papers presented may be held as an extenuating circumstance.

The next meeting of the Conference will be held in Philadelphia, Penn., May 9-16, 1906, with Mr. Edward T. Devine, of New York City as President.

A. J.

November 1st, 1905.

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Preamble.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. Membership.

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, and the sustaining membership fee shall be $10.00 annually. These membership fees shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six Secretaries, a Treasurer, and an Official Reporter and Editor, also a Corresponding Secretary for each state and territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. Committees.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, and all ex-Presidents *ex-officio*, and seven members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of seven on organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each state or territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day for the purpose of receiving invitations from states, cities, or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The President shall be chairman, *ex-officio,* of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of offices and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in and add to the numbers of, any committee except the Executive Committee.

The General Secretary shall be *ex-officio* Secretary of the Executive Commitee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programmes, and shall direct the work of the Secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceed-

ings of the Conference. The President of the retiring Conference, the Official Editor and the General Secretary shall constitute a Publication Committee, and the work of editing shall be under the direction of the committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several states. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. The Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum, provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the programme, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer except by unanimous consent.

VI. Section Meetings.

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and distributed beforehand, that the entire meeting may be given to discussion. No afternoon meetings shall be inserted in the official programme.

VII. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. Amendments.

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction.

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE 1905.

PORTLAND, OREGON, JULY, 1905.

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I.

President's Address.

SOCIAL STANDARDS.

BY DR. SAMUEL G. SMITH.

The object of this address is to show the common ground upon which may stand the various groups of workers represented in this Conference. It has seemed well to attempt such a task, because if we can see that there is at bottom a substantial unity, the perception of it will largely increase our sympathy with each other, while, on the other hand, the scientific aspect of our problems will be brought into the completeness of one vision.

I suppose there are two things that are chiefly needed by all social workers — the one is technical knowledge and the other is theoretical aims. While nearly all our attention has been directed to the first, it is possible that the second need is even more important and practical. By technical knowledge I mean a study of the case as it appears in the individual or in the home or the neighborhood, and of the various methods which may best be employed to treat the pauper, the sick or the criminal, according to the object of the particular institution with which we may be connected, the means at our disposal and the suggested improvements in methods which we desire. Of technical knowledge in the various branches, a great deal has been accumulated during the more than thirty years of work by this Conference, and is found in its published volumes. The field has been broadened and enriched until the Conference might well be called the National Conference of Social Workers, because it includes representatives of every form of philanthropy. Each worker must have special knowledge of his particular field, and this need seems so pressing that much of the work that has been done is case work, based upon the study of the abnormal individual and his surroundings.

But of first importance, at least in the logical order, is it to have proper theoretical aims, and of the study of this side of the subject there has been comparatively little. Knowledge of conditions of distress or crime may awaken our feelings and stimulate us to effort, but wisdom can only be found by having in the very first instance a clear view of what is desired to be accomplished in behalf of the individual. He is poor, it may be, poor through fault or misfortune, and scientific investigation labels him and classifies him. But how rich ought he to be, and in reaching that proper level of life, what part belongs to the organs of charity, how much must be done by himself, and what must be left to that pain and passion, that romance and tragedy, which we call the struggle for existence? We have had before us quite clearly the various forms of human ills and the various methods of their alleviation, but for the practical efficiency of the social worker there must be in his mind some standard of social value to which he would raise the individual. The clear view of that standard, is, it seems to me, the immediate need in every field of effort. What is offered here to-night is an introduction to the study of the social part of the inquiry which will place before us the nature and value of theoretical aims.

These theoretical aims may be furnished by a consideration of certain social standards, and when these are properly named and understood, it will be discovered that we are not dealing with a great mass of unrelated and indigestible facts, we are not scattered workers, to whom co-operation is impossible, but there are certain common aims which must be firmly held in view by every worker in every department, and when this is done we are working together in the art of human living, but based upon the common ground of applied social science. Philanthropics becomes a real part of the orderly study of human life, with a definite scientific side, instead of scattered treasures upon a wild chaos, where there are tears to shed and burdens to break human hearts, but where there is no kingdom of order and no reign of law.

I purpose to show that there are four standards that should be clearly in the mind of every social worker, and that these four

standards, taken together, furnish theoretical aims for all the various workers in social reform and bring all classes of work into scientific unity. If this can be done, all workers, from whatever field, properly belong in this Conference, and not as foreigners or strangers, but as fellow-citizens with such saints of light and leading as the most official representative of state institutions. And state institutions, no less than the most remote private worker, need to hold before their minds these social standards. I now propose to name and to exhibit the nature of these social standards. They are the physical standard, the mental standard, the economic standard, and the standard of efficiency. And the proper recognition of these standards and the proper understanding of them will furnish to every social worker precise theoretical aims in his task, and will furnish also a basis for practical judgment in the various problems with which he must deal. It must be clearly stated and definitely recognized that these standards are social and are not personal or individual. They are standards which are inherited, accepted, and, to some extent, modified by each living social group. The living generation, however, does not contribute anything like the amount that is bequeathed from former generations. When standards seem rapidly to change, it is the culmination of forces which have been at work through long periods of time. If the living social group has but a minor influence in the formation of the tests of human life, of how much less influence is the individual. I leave out of the account now those original natures who suffer and grow strong under the lonely burden of some great idea or great purpose which is afterward accepted by the generations that follow. The work that is done by us is among those classes that constitute the "submerged tenth," submerged not alone in poverty, but in efficiency and in power. It must be pointed out that for these the standards may be regarded as wholly social. By weight of numbers and by the weight of the burden which they put upon the community, it is possible for them to lower the standards, but they never raise them, and they do not fix social values.

It must be further remembered that these social standards are not like yard sticks, definite measures of persons and of life,

which remain the same generation after generation. Ideas, motives, values are not capable of such mathematical exactness; hence it cannot be emphasized too strongly that the successful social worker needs faculty quite as much as he needs knowledge. Each social group must be regarded as having its own standards, and no world-wide metric system can ever be introduced which by a sublime law of averages will furnish exact rules for our guidance. Some of the influences tending to variation of social standards may be briefly stated. They are vital. The size of the social group, the density of population, the form of marriage, the degree of chastity, and questions of birth rate are all elements of the problem upon the vital side. They are physical. The nature of the climate, the degree of fertility of the soil, mineral resources, accessibility to water are among the elements of physical environment. They are commercial. Methods of production, easy markets for surplus, commercial mobility and mediums of exchange enter into the economic modifications. To sum up, the standards of life are in the first instance social, and are furnished by the group for the use of the individual; and in the next place, these standards are not stationary, but slowly change from generation to generation. The sum of human happiness will be found to depend upon the rising standards, and the increase in misery to follow the falling standards. As the rising market indicates economic prosperity, so the ascending of human standards indicates the increase of happiness.

Whole groups of population may be compared with one another. Some groups may be characterized as poor and others as rich; some are moral and others are immoral; some are healthy and others are diseased; and a study of these larger comparisons is of the utmost value to the social student in the furtherance of science and in the sharpening of practical judgment.

But in the various forms of work that meet in this Conference our problem is to compare the individual with the standards of the social group. This fact gives great definiteness to the task in hand. It also easily indicates dangers of misconceptions. I am sometimes in doubt whether social workers

suffer more from their ignorance or their knowledge. If the worker is well informed in regard to methods and successes in Germany, he is quite likely to think that the same methods would bring the same successes in the United States. If he knows how things are done in New York he is convinced that the same things may be done in San Francisco, and in both cases he is wrong. Similar methods may be used in similar groups of population where the problems are practically identical, but where the problem is modified by any of the influences which affect the social group, the remedies must be modified to meet the changed conditions. There is nothing more certain in social science than that institutions cannot be transferred successfully from one group to another group which is distinctly unlike. It is not more sure that flora and fauna must obey the parallels of latitude than that institutions must reflect the character and aspirations of the social group. It is far more important that the social worker should have a rich and exact knowledge of the people among whom he works upon all sides of their life, than that he should have been specialized and trained in a social environment largely different. Particular groups cherish particular standards, and with these the successful worker must be accurately acquainted.

But it is time to consider in some detail the nature of what I regard as the efficient social standards:

THE PHYSICAL STANDARD.

What is expected of the human body is more permanent and more universal than any other of the standards. While each nation and race may vary somewhat in height or weight from every other like group, it still remains that the human body has not changed in any marked degree in historic times. Even where the pressure upon the means of subsistence has been so great as to influence stature, a change in environment soon restores it, the general fact being recognized that the descendants of foreigners in this country are usually taller than their immediate progenitors. This does not result, as some might suppose, from the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, or Manhood Suffrage, but is the result of easier

conditions of toil and a more abundant food supply. There are certain points, however, in this physical standard by which the individual is related to the social group. They are strength, endurance and sense perception or receptivity. Strength and endurance enable the individual to impress himself; sense perception enables him to receive the impressions from the physical world and from social life. One must reach the average in these three qualities in order to succeed. If the individual be weak in one point, he must be strong in the others, and the occupation must be fitted to the qualities of the individual. A man with a weak chest may succeed as a philosopher, but he will not do as a glass-blower or as an auctioneer. A man with poor eyes will succeed fairly well in Egypt, where defective eyesight seems to be the rule, and there is a low standard of efficiency; but poor eyesight is a definite disadvantage in Holland unless there be skill of greater superiority in some occupation not requiring good eyes, and the standard of eyesight is higher in Holland than in Egypt. Endurance is very important in some occupations, but is not so in others. A business man was recently talking to a watchman, and said: "Well, Gus, how are things going?" And Gus replied: "I have to work too many hours; it takes twelve hours to make a day's work." And the business man replied: "Why, Gus, you have a snap. I often have to do a whole day's work in three hours." It is needless to add that Gus has not figured that out yet.

The duty of the philanthropist with respect to the physical standard is to reduce the numbers in the social group of those who do not reach its average capacity by eliminating the causes of degeneration in so far as they are social, and seeking to bring home to the individual his responsibility in so far as they are personal. The recent study in Great Britain as to the condition of youth of certain ages in size and weight, as compared to former times, is an example of social inquiry as a basis for social action. Under the maintenance of the physical standard are grouped all such questions as food, sanitation, hours of labor, and in addition, nearly all sides of what is known as the child problem. It is comparatively useless to seek to do anything for the degenerate physique of an adult. He is already

maimed beyond repair. The plastic period of childhood is the period both of hope and of danger; the badly born child may have his physical efficiency largely increased and the well-born child may and often does have his stock of strength largely impaired. Questions of the tenement-house, of water supply, and of contagious diseases all fall under the consideration of the physical standard. If the requirements of modern civilization compel the formation of large cities, and if the competition in production compels the competitor to use every means for success, so narrow is the possible margin of profit, then the social group must assume its duties by insisting that density of population shall never be carried so far that any child born into the world may be robbed of certain gifts of God which were once supposed to be free to all, namely, fresh air, wholesome sunshine and pure water. And yet to thousands of human beings these commodities are difficult of access and high in price. And since competition in production will at least continue for some time and perhaps ought to continue for all times, the producer should be so far assisted by the state as to find it impossible to employ child labor and so mortgage the next generation, or by hours too long and by unsanitary conditions of labor, to physically bankrupt his working share of the present generation. Of course, it is impossible at a time like the present to more than indicate the various fields that are grouped in this study, and so I pass to the consideration of

THE MENTAL STANDARD.

It is simple enough to state the first form of the doctrine of the mental standard. Some races and some social groups are characterized as more intellectual than others, but every group has its own standard. That is to say, in every group the individual must reach a certain degree of mental power or seriously suffer in his social and economic position. Some are unfit for any share in the real social life. They are so from birth and belong to a special class known as idiots, imbeciles, or feeble-minded. Others are born with a mental instability; the stress of active life is too great for them, and they become insane; but it may be doubted whether idiocy or insanity are ever chiefly

mental, though the discussion of the question would take us too far into questions of psychology. But in practical affairs it is not so much a question of mental power as it is of real participation in the mental resources of the social group. This is the point in the discussion that is most important. What is called the social mind is not a real thing in itself, any more than a species is a real thing in biology. The class name is given to the common qualities of individuals. In like manner the social mind is that complex of traditions, emotions, ideas and customs which forms the real value of any community, and by which it is to be judged. From the social point of view, the value of the individual does not consist so much in any contribution which he may make to the general life of the group, but it does consist in the degree in which he really participates in the contents of what we have called the social mind. If the individual shares the traditions, emotions, faiths, manners of the social group to which he belongs, his social safety is secured. It cannot be pointed out too strongly that a large part of our task is in seeking to adequately socialize the individual. A special case in point is seen in those who are called criminals, and who so far refuse the conduct standards of their group that they have been called anti-social. I am well aware that the conduct standards would popularly be classed as ethical, but from the point of view of social science they are strictly a part of the intellectual accummulations of society. Certain social judgments reach the highest dignity permitted to intellectual conclusions in this world and become framed and published laws, or "conduct defined and enforced by the state."

One of the chief peculiarities of the American problem is seen in the incoherence of the social mind. Our widely extended territory, the very varied physical conditions under which our people live, the complex of races of which the nation is composed, all add to the chaotic condition. Puritan and Cavalier, Saxon and Latin, Slav and Oriental, are not yet fused into a social whole. With such incoherence in the social mind there is sure to be a very wide variety in conduct standards and in the framing and administration of laws. In America, therefore, in respect to the mental standard, we have two very distinct

problems — the larger task is the socialization of the group, and the special task of social workers is the bringing of the individual into harmony with the group. There is a unity in America which is more apparent than real. There is a unity in the political order binding the various sections together, and which has been enormously strengthened in the last generation. There is an economic unity largely influenced by the political order and very much strengthened by the various means of intercommunication. But the social mind, that great organ of the real life of the people, rich in possibilities, splendid with great dreams, like a giant in many elements of strength, awaits the forces which shall bring order, strength and beauty. In this fact lies the secret of many problems which may not be discussed at this time.

THE ECONOMIC STANDARD.

The economic standard of a community includes considerably more than what is known as the standard of living; but for the purposes of this discussion we must confine ourselves to the latter. The standard of living is that average of comfort above which life seems opulent, and below which it seems mean. Each group has its own standard of living, which varies from age to age. Some authorities argue that a rising standard is secured simply by increasing among men the consciousness of wants, for having the wants men will somehow or other satisfy them. There can be no question but that the rising standard tends to an increase of effort and the falling standard to social and individual paralysis. There are wide areas in the world in which the standard of living is now lower than it was formerly, and a historical survey would, I think, tend to confirm the impression that economic production is very much influenced by social and political organization. But there is only time to merely hint at these larger questions. The practical problem before the social worker is found in the individual or family living to such a degree below the standard of living that they seem to themselves and to others to be in want. There is a brute form of poverty in which there is a lack of food to sustain life, that is recognized by every one; but the word poverty in the domain of practical charity is even more elastic than the standard of

living itself. Yet, first of all, the worker among the poor has need of a clear and thorough judgment as to the standard of comfort to which the poor should be raised. This will furnish a basis of judgment for all kinds of work. How the worker will feel about it will depend a good deal upon the comfort which he himself enjoys. The volunteer visitor will doubtless have a different view to that usually entertained by the paid worker. All efforts to make an objective standard which can be seen and recognized by students are of the highest value. Studies of local conditions, of the rise or fall of wages and their purchasing power, classification of family expenses and distribution of income are exceedingly useful in this direction. But, having found a standard of living that would apply sufficiently well to any particular social group, the real question then arises: Is it the duty of the community to raise each individual family to the proper economic level? If wages are insufficient, work is not secured, or misfortune comes, should there be a common fund to supply the wants of the "submerged tenth"? I think the answer will depend upon whether one takes what may be called a static or dynamic view of the problem. That is to say, those who regard the question of misery as a fact complete in itself will be likely to urge with Ruskin that we are to give to people because they are poor, and that the question of "worthy" poor must not be taken into account. The dynamic view will hold that misery is only a symptom, just as a chill is a symptom of physical disease, and that the treatment must be more radical than relief suggests. If the community by public tax or by the funds of private associations seeks to relieve all poverty, simply because it is poverty, by raising every individual to the recognized standard of living, it should be clearly seen that this procedure will infallibly lower the standard of living for the entire community. That is the entire teaching of the experience now become classic which led to the reform of the English poor laws. Nay, further, while at the first a part of the livelihood of the industrious and virtuous would go to the support of the vicious and the lazy, and in this process the standard of living be lowered, the process would not end there. A falling standard would increase still further the number of those incapable of full pro-

duction, and the margin of those in want would become larger and larger until the whole group would descend into poverty. Public relief of want simply because it is want is nothing less than slow social and economic suicide. The standard of living must be maintained for the sake of those who are below it as well as for those who are above it. Special misfortunes and special distress may be met by special relief, but ordinary misery must be met, not by such cheap and easy means as doles from relief funds, but by larger and more economic production, distribution wider and more just, and by insisting that no individuals or families can possibly be raised to the level of the standard of living of any community unless they participate in the effort to the full measure of their ability and opportunity. And this brings us to the

STANDARD OF EFFICIENCY.

As social groups vary in other respects, so do they vary in the standard of efficiency, or in general terms, what may be expected as the total result of a day's work by the group. Whether a man is efficient or not will depend upon a good many factors, which may perhaps well be summed up by saying it will depend on what he is and where he is. As that vague thing we call civilization advances, the standard of efficiency rises. A man valuable in a crude community loses his occupation in one that is highly organized. On the frontier any man who can saw a board and drive a nail may set up as a carpenter, but in Chicago he must at least have enough social capacity to join a labor union. Oliver Goldsmith was able to travel in England and France and play his flute for his meals; but when he reached Italy in his time the whole people were so much more musical that his flute lost its economic value. The question of efficiency must be the final question in successful social organization. It has to do with the individual, it is concerned with his education for service, and his adaptation to his task. But the question of efficiency after the worker has been secured, trained and fitted to a task suited to his capacity, still remains a large social question. It is futile to put a skillful blacksmith on a South Sea island, where there is no iron to work with and no market

for his wares; for the efficiency of the worker there must be material to work with, the co-operation of workers, and sufficient capital. I think there must be an increasing recognition of the place of the group in maintaining the standard of efficiency. All legislation which seeks to interfere with the free operation of the economic forces will probably fail. But such legislation as will insure fair treatment for all men, the protection of women and children, just and equal trade conditions, and, above all, an honest trademark, must be increased and strengthened. By an honest trademark I mean that leather is leather, butter is butter, a published railroad rate is a real railroad rate, that corporations are bound by their charters, and that a day's work when it is paid for must be honestly performed. It is clear that with increasing density of population, increasing problems of production, more highly organized and more complex social forces, the problem of efficiency, as a social standard, ought to be adequately considered by every social worker.

This brief consideration of the social standards will have been very faulty if it is not made clear that the physical standard, the mental standard, the economic standard, and the standard of efficiency are closely related to each other. They are the four parallel lines in the staff of the world's activities, by the aid of which is to be written the world's music. We are working together for rising standards. We believe in better health and longer lives. We believe in the union of society in great traditions, great ideas, great emotions, great activities. We believe in a rising standard of living, an economic standard that shall include not alone the means of living, but, as Aristotle would teach us, the means of living nobly. It is part of our creed that there is enough capacity in man and sufficient sources of wealth in the world to produce adequate comfort for every man, woman, and child. It must therefore be our aim to seek such a high standard of efficiency that by education, virtue, skill, self-control, and a wise social order, the things which have always been possible to poet's dream and prophet's vision shall at last become radiant fact in the domain of practical affairs.

II.

Conference Sermon.

BY REV. JAMES W. LEE, D. D.

O Lord . . . When I consider thy heavens, the work of thy fingers, the moon and the stars, which thou hast ordained: what is man . . . that thou visitiest him? . . . Thou hast made him but little lower than God. . . . Thou madest him to have dominion . . . Thou hast put all things under his feet. . . . The beasts of the field, the fowl of the air and the fish of the sea. . . . How excellent is thy name in all the earth. — Words from the Revised Version of the 8th Psalm.

Ernest Haeckel, the last rose of the atheistic summer which began to pour its destructive rays upon the civilized world during the seventies of the past century, is now left blooming alone. All his distinguished companions have faded and gone. He says that, "Human nature which exalts itself into an image of God . . . . has no more value for the universe at large than an ant, or the fly of a summer's day."

The endless chase of matter and motion round and round upon the plains of unfenced, limitless space never began and is never to end. Whenceless and whitherless they are destined to keep the regions of all out of doors perpetually burning or freezing, waking in the bloom of life or sleeping in the dust of death.

Matter and energy arrange everything, regulate everything, direct everything, from atoms at work in protoplasm to molecules dashing into the "Iliad" from the brain of Homer, from jelly at the bottom of things to "Handel's Messiah," scintillating from the top.

But the atheistic summer is about over. It has melted into the infinite azure of the past. When at its height of blazing heat it threatened to destroy the cherished hopes of the human race.

The atheistic theory can not be assumed to be true in act and practice without bankrupting the moral and intellectual fortunes of mankind. Lord Kelvin, one of the most distinguished scientists of the world, declared before the British association two years ago that belief in God was a necessity of thought. The Sword of Orion, the Seven Stars and all the planets in their courses are up against the godless theory to overthrow it. And it has been overthrown completely. At the session of the Congress of Arts and Sciences, held last year, in connection with the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, Professor Borden P. Bowne, of the Boston University and a member of the Congress, told me that he did not know of a single delegate who did not believe in God.

We have come back to the theory held by David that God made all things.

The atheistic theory is not scientific, because when assumed to be true it does not answer to act in the practical life as though it were true.

Will the assertion made by Haeckel that there is nothing but matter and motion, if assumed to be true, answer to action in the practical life, without bringing mental confusion and actual failure? Will the assertion, if assumed to be false, answer to action in the practical life so as to produce intellectual order, and actual progress? How will the assumption that there is no God work when brought down from the region of intellectual speculation into the domain of everyday life? All this we can test by valid evidence and sound reasoning. We can select any one of the centuries of civilization and find in it data sufficient to make the test. But in order to make a case perfectly clear we will take the closing generation of the last century as furnishing abundant and shining evidence of the proposition that we can not assume the declaration that God made all things to be false without intellectual confusion and actual failure and misfortune.

Thirty years ago Professor John Tyndall delivered his celebrated Belfast address before the British association. In that deliverance he read God out of the universe. The foundation of things was not intelligent mind, but blind, whirling atoms. He declared that he saw in matter, in atoms, the promise and the potency of all forms of life. Notice was served on Christendom

that the Almighty God, so long held by the belated and benighted multitudes of all ages, to be the maker of heaven and earth, must vacate in favor of the pure elementary atom, the unit of mass and of thought.

"There was nothing but atoms and void, all else was mere whims out of date;
It was needless for man to curry favor with beings who could not exist,
To compass some petty promotion in nebulous kingdoms of mist."

The brilliant attempt of Professor Tyndall to dethrone God in the presence of the British association made an impression without any parallel in the whole history of the Christian church. The atheistic tide was at its flood. Professor K. Clifford was saying that in a very little time "evidence of the same kind and cogency, as that which forbids us to assume the existence, between the earth and Venus of a planet as large as either of them, would forbid our faith in a Divine Creator." John Morley adopted the fashion of spelling the word God with a little "g." John Richard Green, the historian, was giving up his creed and his curacy in the English church. George John Romanes published a "Candid Examination of Theism," in which he said:

"Inexorable logic has forced us to conclude that viewing the question as to the existence of a God only by the light which modern science has shed upon it, there no longer appears to be any semblance of an argument in its favor."

Rudolph Virchow, the celebrated physiologist, was teaching materialism in Germany. Emil DuBois-Raymond, another physiologist, whose name is a household word, was spreading the doctrine of atheism in Berlin. Wundt, the most distinguished psychologist of the present generation, was representing materialism at Leipsic. This movement to rule God out of existence in the seventies was the most grave and serious arraignment of the fundamental docrine of religion ever known in the history of thought. It was not shallow and flippant, but earnest and dignified, and led by men of the highest character. Leaders in Israel were alarmed. Dean Church, scholar and saint, said:

"There are reasons for looking forward to the future with solemn awe. No doubt signs are about us which mean something

which we dare scarcely breathe. . . . Anchors are lifted everywhere, and men are committing themselves to what they may meet with on the sea."

Within thirty years thinkers and leaders of scientific thought have changed completely. Those of us who were leaving college in 1874 have actually been witnesses of a mental revolution on the part of the great teachers in the universities of the world such as the human intellect never passed through before. Twenty-four years after Tyndall's famous assertion that matter contained the promise and the potency of all forms of life, Professor Sir William Crookes, president of the British association, in 1898, exactly reversed the words of Tyndall and said that he saw in life the promise and the potency of all forms of matter. In twenty-four years the world's greatest thinkers passed from a conception that regarded the universe as a machine, to the view that held it to be an organism. It is a significant evidence of the scientific value of the assertion that "God made all things," to note that the atheistic theory, though supported by the most influential scientists of the age, can not hold its own through a single generation without collapse and ruin. Even the leaders, such as George John Romanes, Du Bois-Raymond, Virchow and Wundt, saw cause to change their whole point of view before the close of the century. In the early stages of his conversion to atheism, Romanes saw what a break with all he had been accustomed to hold dear was the godless creed to which he had committed himself. In his "Candid Examination of Theism," the strongest treatise ever written against the view that God is the Creator, Romanes gave evidences of this conviction that he was moving toward the breakers. In that book he writes:

"So far as the ruination of individual happiness is concerned, no one can have a more lively perception than myself of the possibly disastrous tendency of my work. . . . I am not ashamed to confess that with this virtual negation of God the universe to me has lost its soul of loveliness; and although from henceforth the precept to 'work while it is day' will doubtless but gain an intensified meaning of the words that 'night cometh when no man can work,' yet when at times I think—as think at times I must—of the appalling contrast between the hallowed glory of that creed

which once was mine and the lonely mystery of existence as now I find it, at such times I shall ever feel it impossible to avoid the sharpest pang of which my nature is susceptible."

The godless theory failed because it was not really scientific. It failed because the experience upon which it was based was local and temporary and not universal and permanent. It failed because it did not conform to all our surroundings, and did not fit into the general order of the universe. It failed just as any animal would fail should it undertake to go one way on the railroad track while the great six-driver was going the other. It failed because it was not in line with events. It might, doubtless, in the esteem of those who hastily accepted it, find itself parallel with certain abstract logical processes. But the abstract logical processes with which it managed to form any alliance were, unfortunately for the theory, not going anywhere, while the great sad pulsating human whole of life was traveling as fast as the wheels of time could move. Woe to the theory that gets athwart the direction in which the human whole is moving!

The atheistic theory if assumed to be true not only fails to answer to action in the practical life as though it were true, it fails also to answer to the necessities of thought in the realms of the intellect.

Kant, the greatest philosopher since Aristotle, says that ideas of nature, man and God, are the presuppositions of all thinking.

All our knowledge, whether of the world or man or God, is manufactured by the reason out of perceptions. The constituent elements of all science are intuitions, as the constituent elements of all material objects are atoms. Had we no intuitions or perceptions of nature through the five senses, we would have no physical science. Had we no intuitions or perceptions of ourselves we could have no science of man. Had we no intuitions or cognitions of God we could have no science of religion. Science of nature, science of man and science of religion are exactly on a level in that they are all three made out of impressions, perceptions, intuitions, cognitions. The world does not break into the mind in bulk. It comes in through the separate, individual sensations it manages to make upon the eye, the ear, the taste, the touch, the smell. It

is the work of the understanding to receive these impressions as they come in detail, to combine them, to unify them, to classify them and to arrange them under the heads of general terms. The knowledge of one's self does not come into the mind ready made. Like our knowledge of the world it comes through perceptions. The self is perceived in the different ways it has of thinking, feeling, willing. It is perceived hoping or despairing, laughing or crying, loving or hating. Intuitions of it in all its moods of emotion and thought and volition are constantly coming before the mind; and just as the reason receives the impression the physical senses bring in from the outside world, so it receives the intuitions which come to it from this inside world of the conscious self. These perceptions of the interior phases of the self's own states of consciousness or activity are combined and classified into general terms and arranged into a body of knowledge. There can be no perception without some one perceiving, an object perceived, and an act of perception. Hume denied the reality of the person perceiving and the thing perceived. This is agnosticism. Fichte denied the independent reality of the thing perceived. This is idealism. Haeckel denies that the perceived is anything more than an animated form of matter. This is materialism. According to Hume, science would consist of the simple ideas of sensation run into clusters and groups held together because of association by contiguity, or association by similarity. According to Haeckel, science would be nothing more than a classified, sublimated effluence of brain atoms, a sort of orderly, refined form of cerebral vapor—the part of matter ethereal enough to rise, looking back at the part too heavy to get up and think.

If we are to take the universe seriously and ourselves seriously and not reduce the whole order of things to the level of a huge hallucination; if we are to find any solid basis for knowledge, or law, or morality, or the state, or religion, or philanthropy: if we are to take it for granted that we are rational beings and live in a rational world, and have rational work to do, then we must start with the fixed and unalterable conviction that there can be no perception or intuition or cognition, without a person perceiving and an object perceived. No world can be seen unless there

is a world to see. No man can be seen unless there is a man to see. No God can be seen unless there is a God to see.

That we can have no cognitions of nature without nature, and no cognitions of man without a self, perhaps all beyond a few extreme idealists and agnostics will be ready to admit. But the proposition that cognitions of God imply the reality of His presence, is not to the average man a self-evident one. He might say, "It is evident that our perceptions of the world imply its existence, for I can see it and hear it and handle it and taste it." He might say, "It is beyond any doubt that our perceptions of a self imply the existence of man, for I know more thoroughly than I know anything else that I exist." But he might ask, "Why does it follow that our perceptions of God imply His existence? I can not see Him, or touch Him, or hear Him; I am not conscious of Him as of myself. May I not be mistaken in supposing that my perceptions of God are anything more than my own mental fancies? May not my cognitions of God be imaginary ejections thrown out of my consciousness, to which the attribute of reality is given?

Our physical sciences we know have been formed by the reason, out of the perceptions students have had of the material world. Our psychological sciences have been formed by the reason out of the intuitions men have had of themselves. It is equally true that all religious rites and ceremonies, all religious hymns and literature, all prayers and adorations and sacrifices, all temples and synagogues and mosques and churches built for worship, all forms of religion, have been created by the reason reacting on religious perceptions. Religions have shifted their ground and changed their forms, and varied in interest and importance, according to the temper of the times, the schools of thought, the bent of leaders, who for the time being happened to be in control of matters among different people; but everywhere the perceptions men have had of the unseen the reason has reacted upon and out of them created religious literature, built religious institutions and established religious forms of worship.

We are supposing that religious intuitions are not of an unseen reality, but are self-evolved fancies humanity from the beginning of its career has been in the habit of pitching out of consciousness into the heavens and mistaking for God. Even

spiders appropriate the material out of which they spin their webs from the surrounding elements, but man spins his theologies out of the interior substance of his soul. Peoples do not learn to do this from one another. The inhabitants of the remotest island of the sea, who know nothing of the ways of other nations do it. The Mexicans did it before they had ever heard of the Egyptians. The wild Indians of the West did it without even knowing of the existence of tribes in the East. The sense of the unseen is a feeling, a state of mind, common to mankind. But while it is permanent, it is matched by nothing outside of itself. This is the cog in human nature for which no mortise in the outside wheel of existence is found.

If religious intuitions do not imply God, as sense-perceptions imply nature, and self-cognitions imply man, then civilization is an unsubstantial dream. When a person objectifies himself into some one else and comes at length to believe himself a ruler of a nation when every one of his friends knows he is only John Smith, a jury is called to pass on his sanity. If a man continues to talk into one end of the telephone and to get answers back when there is no one at the other end of it, a jury is called to inquire into the state of his mind. Now, if for thousands of years the human race has been perceiving God in nature, in conscience, in history, and answering back through prayer and reverence, and song and liturgy and doctrine and temple, when in fact no God has been perceived, then it is evident that human nature is constitutionally deranged. It is remarkable, however, that man should find himself led astray at none of the gateways through which he holds commerce with outside reality except the religious. The gateway of vision opens out directly into the kingdom of light. The gateway of sound exactly adjoins the kingdom of melody. The intellect borders on the realm of truth. The universe fits closely about and meets and matches every human sense except the religious. If man would breathe, there is the air; if he would satisfy his hunger, there is food; if he would slake his thirst, there is water; if he would talk, there are vibrations to carry his words. Every door of the soul and body is an open port through which there is constant exchange of inside and outside merchandise, except the one opening into the religious regions.

When through the spiritual sense he apprehends what he takes to be divine reality, he finds only the phantasmal form of his own soul filling the horizon in front of him.

We are forced, therefore, to conclude either that the religious sense feels God as completely as the physical sense feels nature and the self-sense feels man, or that the most important cog in human nature has no mortise in outside reality to fit it. But if there is no spiritual mortise in the nature of things corresponding to the religious cog in man's life, then it will be in order for some materialist to explain how it comes about that the religious wheel has turned out greater results than any other in the whole machinery of humanity, while toothed with cogs with which nothing in the outside wheel of existence correspond. This is equivalent to saying that animism turns the wheel of savage life, and Buddhism the wheel of Hindoo life, and Confucianism the wheel of Chinese life and Shintoism the wheel of Japanese life, and Zoroastrianism the wheel of Persian life, and Mohammedanism the wheel of Turkish life, and Christianity the wheel of all progressive life, with cogs which nothing in the various outside rounds of existence match. This is about as sensible as saying that butchers throughout all ages have been turning money into their coffers from the pockets of people by tricking them into the belief that they had appetites which called for meat, when they did not; that millers have been grinding out flour with wheels made to match no movements of hunger; that dealers in fuel have piled up fortunes by means of mercantile devices which had no mates in the weather; that clothes merchants have created for themselves a career by conducting establishments that correspond to no need for raiment; that Job and Homer and Virgil have made themselves famous through mental creations for which there was no call or appreciation in the universal human mind.

That we see God through religious intuitions as really as we see nature through sense-intuitions and man through self-intuitions, is the position held by St. Paul, who declares:

"For the invisible things of Him since the creation of the world are clearly seen, being perceived through the things that are made, even His everlasting power and divinity."

Perception discovers the worlds of sense and self and spirit and faith receives them, after which reason measures their coasts, surveys their lands, explores their mines, bridges their rivers and turns to account the resources of their soils, their forests and their mountains. Faith takes over from intuition a wilderness and reason changes it into a garden of knowledge. Faith receives from cognition a gold-field and reason brings up the ore, separates the slags from the grains of yellow metal, and passes it through the mint for general circulation. Faith accepts from perception the crude coloring matter and reason grinds it and refines it and arranges it in notes on the canvas so that it sings out to the ears called eyes landscapes and flocks of sheep grazing in the meadows and castles in the heart of the woods, whenever the fingers of light come playing on the keys of pigment.

Man, acording to the Psalmist, is made but a little lower than God. God is the infinite self-conscious, self-determining, self-active One. Man is the finite self-conscious, self-determining, self-active one.

The brilliant esayist and biographer of Browning, G. K. Chesterton, said that one might declare with truth perhaps that comparatively few men are manly, but that no one could say that all whales were not whaly. So one might say to a friend after he had taken his tenth drink, hoping to deter him from taking another, "Be a Man," but no one would ever think of saying to a crocodile after he had swallowed his tenth explorer, "Be a crocodile." Whales and crocodiles are not spirits; but man, essentially and fundamentally, is and in calling upon a human being to be a man, an appeal is made to what he essentialy and eternally is, in distinction from what he locally and temporally is.

Men have always been seeking the Lord, crudely, blindly, ignorantly often, but everywhere from the beginning of the world they have been prostrating themselves before some power, or powers, or person, and ceaselessly lifting their voices and vows and adorations and prayers to these superior beings. The evidence is absolutely clear that a man is a religious being of nature. That he was created with a sense of dependence upon a being other than himself and higher than himself, and yet a being related to himself. This sense of dependence and responsibility in man to the

unseen, which had led him to fall at the feet of altars erected to all classes and conditions of gods and goddesses in all quarters of the globe, constitute the whole human side of religion, as the eye in man constitutes the human side of seeing, and the ear the human side of hearing. This is religion subjectively considered, or rather it is the human half of religion.

Man did not begin his career on the earth wholly equipped for anything, but half equipped for all he was to get and become. He was born with eyes, the half of vision, and found in light the other half. He was born with ears, the half of hearing, and found in sound the other half. He was born with lungs, the half of breathing, and found in the air the other half. He was born with hunger, the half of physical strength, and found in food the other half. He was born with intellectual faculties, the half of knowledge and found in the thought expressed in the outside world, the other half. He was born with a sense of harmony, the half of music, and found in the notes lodged in all material objects the other half. He was born with a sense of dependence upon an unseen power, higher than himself, and with a sense of relationship and obligation to that power, prompting him to acts of reverence, devotion, sacrifice and obedience, in order to please, placate, and come into harmony with it, which is the half of religion, the other half he found in the revelation the unseen One made of Himself. Since we know that there is light for the eye, and sound for the ear, and air for the lungs, and food for hunger, and knowledge for the intellect, and beauty for the esthetic sense, we know there is a God to match the religious nature.

Man must not only find God to complete his spiritual nature, he must find and come into reciprocal relations with his fellow to complete his social nature. Unlike the beast of the field, his life has no significance, out of relation with others of his kind, but in the race to which he belongs, he sees his other and better self. When in friendly, reciprocal relation with his larger and kindred life, his arms become long enough to encircle the globe. In correspondence with the social whole of which he is a part, he finds it possible to multiply the life of each by the life of all. In relation he becomes significant and great, for upon the supposition that there are 1,500,000,000 of persons like himself on the earth, he

finds his individuality augmented by the possession of 3,000,000,000 of hands to help him work, and 3,000,000,000 of eyes to help him see, and 1,500,000,000 of hearts to sympathize with him, in solving the problems and bearing the burdens of life. His existence is not then eked out in lone, Bedouin isolation. He is a partner of a life as wide as the planet, whose throbbing currents come up around his beating heart to refresh it, and to float its outgoing pulsations round the world.

The race from the beginning of its career has been painfully and slowly but surely pulling itself together into one great human whole. It is the unspeakable privilege of those who live at the beginning of the Twentieth Century to see the work about complete. Humanity is united today as never before. The elbows of the nations touch and they are supported by a common commerce and inspired by a common hope and moved to a common destiny, as not in any previous period of the world's history.

In relation with universal life, man finds himself at an open port, where, for a small contribution to the multiplex flow of exchanges passing through it, he can take toll of the merchandise of the world. He can use the millions invested in street car systems for five cents a ride. He can avail himself of the vast outlay of money and thought which unite to produce the morning paper for one cent a copy. He can use all the billions which have been spent in the establishment of railroads, steamship lines, electric light plants, shoe factories, iron foundries, and other forms of modern industry, to serve every side and relation of his life, at such compensation as comes within the range of every earnest toiler's income. No king or queen of ancient times ever had the comforts and conveniences enjoyed by any industrious laboring man of to-day. No Lucullus or Heliogabalus ever fared as he does, and all because we have come to the time when man is recognized as one factor of an equation, of which the human race is the other, and to the time when the smaller factor, which spells individuality, has learned how to increase its power and multiply its efficiency by the multitudinous immensity of the large factor, which spells humanity.

All things, declares the Psalmist, are put under the feet of man, the beasts of the field, the fowl of the air, and the fish of the

sea. He is crowned with glory and honor. Through the process of knowing he takes into his mind the thought God put into the world. He learns God's ideas and then re-embodies them. He becomes a co-laborer with the Creator. He so clearly sees the creative purpose and so completely identifies himself with it in thought and feeling and volition that the Almighty uses him to put finishing touches on the things He made without him. If Michael Angelo had left the Sistine Chapel half finished and had some artist been able to take this work up and complete it after the same mastery of detail and scale of beauty seen in the first part, everybody would have recognized in the second artist the qualities of thought and feeling they knew in the first. The most perfect specimens of plant and animal life we know, are not such as God made without man, but such as He made with man co-operating with Him. The creative process has entered upon a finer and higher stage since man appeared on the scene of activity. The distance from the crab-apple to the New York pippin measures the human contribution to the perfection of the apple. The little, sour, black winter grapes that grow on the banks of our streams have by the help of human thought and insight been carried up into the large, sweet, splendid specimens we find for sale in the markets. The thin-leaved, diminutive hedge rose has been turned into the Marechal Niel. The chrysanthemum has been changed from a shriveled winter pink into a half-peck of blossom.

Through man, lands and rivers and places are transfigured. The barren, commonplace Palestine is transmuted through Joshua and David and Isaiah into a country of fadeless beauty. Sunburnt and rock-ribbed Greece gets an eternal lease on immortality through her artists and philosophers and poets. The Scotland of Sir Walter Scott is infinitely more attractive than was his native land before it began to glow in the colors of his genius. The waters of Burns' tiny Bonnie Doon are of more value than those of the vast Amazon. The Avon outranks the Mississippi.

The statement that "human nature has no more value for the universe at large than an ant or the fly of a summer's day," does not square with the facts. Consider the difference in the value of the American continent to-day, as compared with its value four hundred years ago, when Columbus discovered it. The

present wealth of America is more than sufficient to buy out the whole Eastern hemisphere of the world as the people knew it before 1492. And it is all owing to what man has added to it. The beavers have not helped any, nor have the ants or the flies or the mosquitoes. The thought we call instinct the animals carry in their blood does not grow. It is stationary. It is man who has to struggle for what he knows by changing his intuitions into general ideas which he reproduces in modifying climates, altering the courses of rivers, invading the domain of the ocean with his fields and making forests grow on new ground prepared for them; who turns the face of the earth from a wilderness into a blooming garden. He it is who finds out the secrets of things in themselves. He it is the Almighty has endowed with a mind capable of harvesting the thought sown in the stars, and in the light, and in the mighty sea, and in the human spirit. He it is who uses his knowledge to tunnel mountains, bridge rivers, subdue the ocean, and make out of wire and electricity a nervous system for the social human whole as perfect as that each individual has for his own body. He has abolished space and obliterated time. The great ether sea through which suns and constellations swim he now proposes to subordinate to his purpose as he uses the Atlantics and Pacifics. Whether he is more important for the universe at large than the "ant or fly of a summer's day" or not one thing is certain, he has forced the universe to serve him in an infinitely larger sense than the ants and the flies have ever been able to get it to serve them. The Author of the universe (which Haeckel says is matter and motion) seems to be using man, his intelligence, will and emotion through which to transmute the whole material order into higher realms of being.

The great procession that for millions of years steadily moved up until the topmost plane of creation was reached, has since that time seemingly kept up its ascending movement through the highway of the human soul. Horses, cattle, sheep and all animals that have promise of a career on earth go up into finer forms by way of the human spirit. Chrysanthemums, roses, honeysuckles and all flowers, as well as pears, watermelons, grapes, peaches, and all fruits, climb now by the way of thought. Pigeons, ducks, chickens and all birds ascend through human life.

The thought that things have steadily moved upward from the beginning is the most stimulating and wide-reaching conception ever grasped by the mind of man. The conviction that underlying matter and motion and life there has been an ascending purpose, widening and deepening, and gradually disclosing itself has come as a bracing and universal tonic to the modern mind. It has put pessimism, together with the atheism and agnosticism, which made it possible, out of business. It has closed the careers of the Schopenhauers, and the von Hartmans. It has caused a complete change in the outlook of the human race, leading it to see no longer its ideals in the narrow Edens of the past, but to press toward a paradise in the future where all the sons of men shall stand together in the wide, ample gardens of God.

"The whole creation groaneth and travaileth in pain together until now." But through man the natural creation is moving up into use and beauty such as was never seen before.

Man not only lifts up all things around him, he has learned from Jesus Christ, the Son of God, the Son of Man, the Universal Life, the way to go up himself. Through nineteen hundred years he has been slowly but steadily making his way to citizenship in the heavenly places through the crucified Son of God. Through Him we are to do for the human world what such patient workers as Mr. Burbank are doing for the plant world. Human beings are far more susceptible and responsive to treatment than are the weeds of the field. But if we are to lift them up we must take hold of them in the wholeness of their being. They are primarily and essentially and persistently religious. The only treatment to which they permanently respond is Christian treatment — the treatment of love and sacrifice and sympathy. We have a concrete illustration of the efficiency of this method of redeeming human life in that furnished by Dr. Thomas J. Barnardo and his ninety-three homes established in different parts of England to-day. Thirty-eight years ago he began with one poor little waif of a boy named Jim Jarvis, found in the streets of London. The boy was motherless, homeless, friendless. In thirty-eight years he has gathered from the streets of English cities nearly sixty thousand waif children. In his homes they have been educated, trained to work, and taught to trust in Jesus

Christ for salvation from sin. When the children leave the homes for the great world, they go out trained in mind, disciplined in hand, and committed in heart to Christ. The results are far more amazing than such as Mr. Burbank has accomplished in taking the thorns from the cactus plant, or in taking the shell inclosing the kernel from stone fruits, or in making the plum-cot by crossing the apricot and the plum. Out of the nearly sixty thousand young people trained in Dr. Barnardo's homes not more than two per cent. have turned out badly. Think of that wretched procession of waif children, jostled, crowded, cropped, trampled upon, torn, beaten, despairing, making their way to noble manhood and womanhood through the Christian soul of a man who loves his fellow-man, as Jesus loved him, because filled with the spirit of Christ, and you get a view of the direction the evolutionary process, as guided by the mind of Christ, is taking in the sad, sinful, human world.

This upward movement of human life and its affairs through Christ must not be regarded as merely dogmatic and doctrinal; it is cosmic and universal. Lamennais said long ago that "Christianity can only continue its evolution by entering into the circle of the natural laws of man. It is now entering on this new era, one of those solemn moments in which everything seems to be perishing, but in which everything is being born." We are now beginning to see in the light of evolutionary philosophy as well as in that of the history of the nineteen hundred past years that the ethical and spiritual forces which Christ set working in humanity are destined to dominate the world. The great truth Christ taught was that men live by dying, they go up by going down, they find themselves by losing themselves, they triumph through sacrifice. Christ sacrificed Himself. He descended from a higher to a lower order of social existence.

"While in the form of God," He "counted it not a prize to be on an equality with God, but emptied Himself, taking the form of a servant, being made in the likeness of men, and being found in fashion as a man, He humbled Himself, becoming obedient even unto death, yea the death of the cross wherefore also God hath highly exalted Him, and gave unto Him the name which is above every name; that in the name of Jesus every knee should

bow, of things in heaven and things on earth and things under the earth, and that every tongue should confess that Jesus Christ is Lord, to the glory of God the Father."

By His descent from the heights of holiness into the depths of wretchedness and sin enough power was liberated to redeem and transform the world.

It is a well-known truth of the material realm that energy, whether radiant, electrical or chemical, always results from the conjunction of that which is the higher with that which is lower. If all things in the physical world were on a dead level such a thing as energy would not be possible. Whenever it is generated it may be known that something above is passing to a level below. If the atmosphere surrounding the steam engine was heated to the same degree of the steam in the boiler not a wheel would turn. To the difference of temperature of that within to that without we owe the power that moves the flying train.

When the water plunges down more than one hundred and fifty feet at the great Falls near Buffalo, power is liberated sufficient in quantity to turn all the wheels and light all the streets of America. When water goes from the boiling to the freezing point heat is communicated to the surrounding atmosphere.

It is equally true that spiritual power is due always to the entrance of higher life into the conditions of lower life. And the amount of force liberated or made available by such a down-falling process will be in proportion to the energy of position occupied by the life, and by the moral and spiritual value of the life. It is beyond any question that one person can never raise the moral grade of another above that which he occupies himself. An ignorant man can never add to the items of knowledge possessed by his neighbor. If all men were thieves and liars by settled practice and confirmed habit, available power for converting them into lovers of honesty and truth could only be secured from some holy life coming down from above them into their midst. If the sun were to cease to come with his light and heat into the atmosphere of the earth we would soon all freeze.

The annual spring revival that comes to meadow and plain, forcing the plants to swell and bloom is due to the coming of that which is above the earth into contact with living things upon it.

All analogies break down at some point. This does because it fails to illustrate what we mean by the descent of Christ into the conditions of human life, in that when the sun parts with its heat it does not get it back, but in giving away its force is gradually getting poorer in resources.

Now the sacrifice of Christ, while it does stand for the coming of the Son of God from a higher into a lower realm, and does give us the secret of His success among men, yet Christ does not like the sun, lose Himself by giving Himself. Here is a distinct line differentiating the material from the spiritual. Christ came from a higher to a lower department of being, and thus by so descending made available infinite resources of spiritual power for man to draw on, but instead of losing Himself by this process, He finds himself multiplied and magnified by all who are redeemed through His sacrificial movement.

A distinguished electrical engineer proposes to build a plant at Niagara for the purpose of transmitting the falls into power for work in all parts of the world. He has learned by experiment that the whole of mother earth's body can be turned into a huge trolley. But you may know when energy is sent in one hundred horse-power packages over the globe's round back to turn the wheels of machine shops in Africa, of factories in India, of railway cars in Australia, or to light homes in the depths of the country, or to flash the doings of humanity into all lands, that Lake Erie is parting with it by going down from a higher to a lower level.

The great need of this age is not physical force, but spiritual. We may convert into available working power all the falling water on earth and run every car and light every home and heat every furnace and turn every wheel on the entire globe without lifting the human race one inch higher in the moral and spiritual scale.

Through the crucified Christ the whole power of love streams from the heart of God. The holy and renewing and recreative life of our Father in heaven pours itself down into the depths of human guilt and despair through sacrifice. The Crucifixion stands for the point in time when the flowing and everlasting mercy of God actually fell at the cataract of Calvary to liberate power to redeem and reorganize the human race. We avail our-

selves of this power when through His grace we go down in the sacrifice of ourselves that we may lift up those beneath us in privilege and opportunity and moral worth. Sacrifice is the price of human ascent. When in the course of a generation the radiating color of health and hope gathers into the cheeks of sixty thousand waif children, it may be known that some one like Dr. Barnardo, filled with the spirit of Christ, is repeating in modern times the experiment of Christ and parting with his life, that it may be transmuted into a career for neglected childhood. When wounded soldiers in the wards of the hospital turn to kiss the shadow on the wall of some one passing down the aisles of pain it may be known that Florence Nightingale has come down from the heights of beauty and holiness to be mother and sister to those who perhaps will never again look into the faces of their own mothers and sisters. When the inmates of Sing-Sing find falling into their lives a bit of light and warmth from the weekly visits of a New York club man and millionaire, who is prompted to spend his Sundays with them, it may be known that a great soul is practicing the method of Christ and parting with his life that the outlook of the most wretched part of our population may be a little more tolerable. All sacrifices do but speed forward that great day, when the knowledge of the Lord shall cover the earth as the waters cover the sea.

> And if, the time ye toiled and sorrowed most,
> The voice of your lamenting seemed all lost,
> And from that land no answer came again,
> It was because of that your grief and pain
> A house was building, and your bitter sighs
> Came thither as toil-helping melodies,
> And in the mortar of the gembuilt wall
> Your tears were mingled, to the rise and fall
> Of golden trowels, tinkling in the hands
> Of builders gathered wide from all the lands.
> Oh brothers, come, help, build!

O, Lord, our Lord, how excellent is thy name in all the earth.

III.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

The blanks for the reports from the State Corresponding Secretaries which were prepared by the Committee, followed the statistical division adopted some years ago, into groups of Delinquents, Dependants and Defectives. A request for special information as to Out-Door Relief was added. Then each secretary was requested to give brief statements as to recent legislation, new developments and apparent needs. Information as to State Conferences of Charities was also asked. The Corresponding Secretaries were asked to give strictly new information. Only new institutions or important changes in old ones were to be mentioned. Copies of last year's report were sent to every one so that they might avoid duplication. The result is that the reports are much briefer than they have been and they do not present, as some secretaries have formerly made them, complete statements of the Charities and Corrections of their state but are, as they have always been meant to be, a record of the progress of a year.

The pages which follow are devoted to the reports of new legislation, new developments in method in either public or private charity and remarks on the most obvious needs of the various states in the matters that come within our purview. There will also be found a tabulation of the few reports on Out-Door Relief.

The statistical reports are grouped under the three adopted headings. It is hoped this method of arranging the report may conduce to more complete figures as well as make comparisons easier.

Among the more notable developments must be mentioned the rapid spread and the improvements in method of the Juvenile Courts, and the extension of Child Labor Legislation and other

reforms in the direction of the better protection of children. Juvenile Courts are mentioned in the reports from California, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Nebraska, Ohio, Oregon, and Washington. Child labor legislation and other laws for the protection of children are told of in the word from California, Delaware, Kansas, Maine, Missouri, Nebraska, Oregon, and Vermont.

Important changes in law or in method with respect to prison affairs are reported from Arkansas, California, Indiana, Louisiana, Minnesota, Oregon, Rhode Island, and Washington. New developments concerning the insane are heard of from Indiana, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Oregon. Indiana reports a new Village for Epileptics, and Ontario tells of a new Cottage Institution for the same class. Washington and Oregon tell of new Institutions for the Feeble-Minded. Illinois reports Civil Service Reform legislation.

The reports from Indiana and Massachusetts are notably full and interesting, the former reporting an amount of new legislation which marks a strong forward movement in that live progressive state. The same may be said about the State of Washington, although some of the new legislation reported is hardly germane to this Conference.

From a number of states where the legislature meets biennially and has not met this year there is little to report that is new. In Michigan the General Assembly is still in session and so only hopes of new laws can be expressed.

ARKANSAS

PROF. J. H. REYNOLDS, FAYETTEVILLE,

State Coresponding Secretary.

Since my report a year ago the Legislature has established a Reform School for young criminals under eighteen. The law provides for competent instruction to be given at least three hours a day. "Everything practicable shall be done to develop them morally, intellectually and industrially, and to teach them some useful trade," says the law. Precautions are taken in the law for a healthful location and a carefully constructed building.

Charity in Arkansas is administered locally through the County Court, and no reports are made to a central authority by the Court. Hence it is not possible to furnish information on this subject. Private charity exceeds public charity. The state needs a better articulation of local and state authorities, so as to furnish the data.

The Legislature has just changed the name "Insane Asylum" to Hospital for Nervous Diseases, but has not altered the plan of the Institution.

The State maintains a Confederate Home for the relief of destitute ex-Confederate soldiers and their widows.

CALIFORNIA.

KATHARINE C. FELTON, SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF SAN FRANCISCO.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The influence of the newly created State Board of Charities is manifest in the legislation for 1905, especially in that which provides for a radical change in the prison system of the state. The following are the main provisions of these new laws as outlined by Secretary Gates:—

The most important legislation respecting charities and correction, enacted by the last legislature, is the provision for the rebuilding of the prisons of the state. Over $500,000, spreading over five years of time, has been appropriated for this purpose. With this money a wall will be built around a portion of the state prison grounds at Folsom, and in addition there will be built a cell house containing from four to six hundred cells.

The improvements at San Quentin prison provide for the extension of the prison grounds by the removal of a hill, and the filling up with this material of a portion of the tide flats. The walls will be extended to include a portion of this ground, at the same time keeping it separate from the present prison enclosure. On this new site will be erected a new cell house containing about 800 cells.

For the identification of prisoners, a bureau, under the direction of the Board of Prison Directors has been authorized. This bureau is in charge of a chief, and its duties are to collect photographs and identification cards of all the prisoners of the state, and also, so far as possible, from prisons of other states, that the criminal records of those who are now in prison, or may be brought to trial, can be ascertained.

Authority was also granted to the State Lunacy Commission to deport non-resident and alien insane.

An effort was made to classify the inmates in the two reform schools, sending to Whittier State School boys under sixteen years of age and to Preston School of Industry boys over sixteen years of age. The bill in regard to Whittier became a law, but that in relation to Ione did not reach final passage. Therefore, while no boy accused of crime can be sent to Whittier if over sixteen years of age, it is still possible to send such boys under sixteen years to the Preston School of Industry.

The legislature of 1905 also passed two other important laws affecting the charity work of the state. First: A stringent Child Labor Law raising the minimum age of children in industry from twelve to fourteen. Secondly: A law providing for the incorporation of chattel and loan associations to be licensed by, and under the control of, the Bank Commissioners. The dividends of such association are limited to six per cent., and the maximum rate of interest fixed. This rate is also the maximum rate that can be charged by any chattel, loan or credit association (other than regularly licensed pawn brokers), on goods less than $300 in value.

Strong effort was made by three of the largest counties in the state; San Francisco, Los Angeles, and Alameda, to amend the Juvenile Court Law so that the salaries of the probation officers should be paid by the respective counties. The amendment was defeated except as it applied to Los Angeles.

New Developments.

During the last two years Juvenile Courts have been established in the principal cities of the state. In San Francisco a Juvenile Court Committee was organized from representatives

of the legitimate charities directly interested in, and connected with, the work of the Court. One of the prominent women's clubs was also represented. This Committee has nominated the Probation Officers and has raised the money for their salaries; it has also been given control of the Juvenile Detention Home; thus keeping this Institution out of politics. The organization of the Committee on this basis has tended to lessen the influence in the Court of illegitimate and irresponsible organizations and has brought about a closer and more vital co-operation among the charities represented.

Co-operation With Public Authorities.

The Associated Charities of Oakland has been appointed the investigating agency of the county in the distribution of out-door relief. This is the result of five years effort. Three Associated Charities in the State are now performing this quasi public duty.

Needs.

Two years ago the Associated Charities and the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society established a Children's Agency for the benefit of the Children's Institutions about the Bay. The agent was to visit the children placed in family homes by any of these institutions and to find new homes for such other children as might be eligible for placement. This plan has been successful, because while it secured the advantages due to centralization, no institution was forced to sacrifice the individuality of its work nor to surrender to an outside organization the children entrusted to it. The Agency is the official representative of twelve institutions, and its work has already outgrown the capacity of a single agent. On its present basis and with its meagre financial support the Children's Agency is but a first halting step toward the solution of our problem of child dependency. The acceptance of the Agency by the other children's institutions of the state; the enforcement of a rigid system of investigation before children are admitted into the children's homes; the radical change of our guardianship and adoption laws in the interest of foster parents are the steps for the immediate future.

COLORADO.

CLARENCE F. HAGAR, DENVER.

State Corresponding Secretary.

New Developments.

Since my last report a great work has been accomplished through the Juvenile Courts of this state, more especially on the part of Ben. B. Lindsey, County Judge of the City and County of Denver. His efforts in this direction have not only been recognized by the state authorities of Colorado, but by President Roosevelt, who has taken occasion to compliment Judge Lindsey, and the Colorado philanthropists on their activity and thoroughly-up-to-date child saving. The Juvenile Improvement Society of Denver is one of the special features, together with the detention houses, and the very deep interest taken in securing employment for boys in the best fields and workshops of this state. The Colorado Humane Society is aiding very materially in this same direction.

Colorado is being well supplied with hospitals and sanatoria. In the mountain regions the vicissitudes incident to the mining industry, the accidents inseparable from the struggle with the rocks, have made a hospital a necessity in the mining camps. The great number of health seekers drawn to this state by the equable climate, sunshine and the pure air of this mile-high commonwealth has caused the erection of many sanatoria, especially adapted to the cure of diseases of the lungs.

We are gradually seeing a little new light in the way of a very effective settlement of our labor troubles in this state, which have played a very important part before the entire nation the past two years, and I am glad to report that a more friendly relation between labor and capital is now finding its way in these channels, and as a result the state is becoming more thoroughly developed, and a feeling of confidence seems to prevail, and a bright and promising future for the good and welfare of this commonwealth looks exceedingly favorable.

Needs.

The last session of the legislature the State Board of Charities and Corrections made every effort to have bills passed upon the following subjects:

A private hospital for nervous individuals.
Industrial training school for the adult blind.
Persons of unsound mind.
Habitual criminals.
First offenders.
Prison labor.
State Agent for supervision of paroled prisoners.
School for feeble-minded children.
School for neglected children.

The bill providing for the employment of prisoners is the only one that finally passed and became a law.

CONNECTICUT.

CHAS. P. KELLOGG, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, WATERBURY.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The Connecticut Legislature is still in session at the date of writing and several matters of interest in the departments of charity and correction have not yet been reported by the committees to which they were referred.

The commission which was appointed two years ago to investigate the question of a State Reformatory reported in favor of establishing a reformatory for male misdemeanants and certain classes of first offender felons between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five years. An option was obtained upon a desirable piece of property near the city of Hartford and plans were drawn up for the erection of a complete and modern institution. The proposed cost of the institution would be about $400,000.00, and it is feared that the size of this amount may prevent a favorable report by the legislative committee. Many friends of the refor-

matory movement would prefer to see a modest beginning made with a small appropriation and then let the institution work out its own development.

Bills have been introduced making certain amendments in the indeterminate sentence law and the probation system looking to more liberal and satisfactory application of both measures. A bill was passed by the Legislature providing that five of the six members of the State Board of Pardons should have power to grant pardons under certain conditions to inmates in the State Prison, but the bill was afterward vetoed by the Governor.

An attempt has been made to provide for the commitment of dependent children to private chartered orphan asylums and their support there by the State, but the legislative committee has not yet reported on the measure.

The right of inspection of the Connecticut Institute for the Blind, which up to this time has been exercised by the State Board of Charities, has been removed from that Board by an act of the Legislature and has been vested in the State Board of Education of the Blind upon condition that no member of that Board should be at the same time officially connected in any way with the Institute for the Blind.

A bill has been favorably reported providing for certain restrictions in the construction of new tenement houses as regards size of rooms, window openings and amount of lot covered by building. A commission has been appointed to investigate the matter of fees paid to public officials for the purpose of learning if a salary system would not be better in many instances.

New Developments.

No new institutions have been established within the past year, but several which were mentioned in the last report as approaching completion have since been put in active operation. The new State Hospital for the Insane, at Norwich, has now accommodations for about one hundred patients and an effort is being made in the present Legislature to secure an appropriation for the erection of additional buildings. The Hospital is conducted on the homeopathic plan, so far as that differs from the other schools of medicine in the treatment of the insane.

A bill has passed the Legislature providing for the construction of a small hospital for contagious diseases in connection with the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane, at Middletown.

The Middlessex General Hospital, in the city of Middletown, and the Gaylord Farm Sanatorium for Incipient Tuberculosis, at Wallingford, which were mentioned in the last report as approaching completion, were soon afterward opened and have clearly demonstrated the value of their establishment. The latter institution is in receipt of a State appropriation of $10,000.00 from the present Legislature to cover the coming biennial period. A new hospital in Bridgeport, to be conducted by an Order of Sisters in the Roman Catholic church, will be opened at an early date.

Needs.

One of the most pressing needs in the department of correction in Connecticut, which may or may not be filled by the present legislature, is a State Reformatory. Such an institution for young women past sixteen years of age, the limit at which they are admitted to the Industrial School for Girls, is especially needed, but it is probable that its establishment will have to wait until the question of the Reformatory for men is settled.

A separate institution for the care and treatment of epileptics is also greatly desired and an effort is being made in the present Legislature to provide for the appointment of a commission to investigate the subject.

As noted before, a distinct step in advance would be the establishment of comfortable homes for aged and needy men, who by their character and previous condition are superior to the class of persons usually sent to the town almshouses.

DELAWARE.

MRS. EMALEA P. WARNER, WILMINGTON.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

An act passed to abolish child labor under 14 years of age and from 14 to 16 years limited to nine hour days. Educational

test required. Factory inspector to be appointed by the Governor.

An act requiring Kent and Sussex counties to send long term prisoners to New Castle Co. Work House, after 1907.

An act abolishing the pillory.

An act authorizing Levy Court of New Castle Co., to pay 25 cents daily per capita for girls admitted from that county to Delaware Industrial School. This in addition to the State annual appropriation of $3,000. Also Levy Court of New Castle Co., to pay D. Ferris Industrial School for Boys 40 cents daily per capita, instead of 28 cents daily as formerly.

An act providing for a new school charter for Wilmington reducing number of Board of Education from 24 to 13 members. Also providing for kindergartens and all necessary schools.

An act exempting all charitable institutions from taxation.

New Developments.

New building for Homeopathic Hospital, old one to be reserved for charity patients. $1,000 given to District nurse work and efficiency increased thereby.

Needs.

Better municipal accommodations for prisoners, and separate court for juvenile offenders.

Remarks.

The right spirit in charitable work is growing, and the philanthropy class started by the Friends Society last year it is hoped will be continued and enlarged next winter.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

HENRY B. F. M'FARLAND, COMMISSIONER.

Corresponding Secretary of the District.

Legislation.

Two important things were acomplished in legislation since last report.

1. Congress has taken definite action looking to the discontinuance of the subsidy system of granting public funds to private charitable organizations. It has so modified the law that Government aid, which has heretofore been granted to a number of the smaller charitable institutions, will be discontinued; and it is provided that other private institutions, heretofore largely dependent upon the Government for support, shall hereafter receive public funds only in the form of payment for actual services rendered. The new law makes the money available only for the payment for the care and maintenance of such persons as, in the judgment of the proper public authorities, are fit subjects for public care. The law provides that the money shall be paid under contract made by the Board of Charities.

2. Another important thing gained was the recognition by Congress of the public playgrounds, by the appropriation of a small sum ($2,000) for their maintenance. Playgrounds have been maintained for several years by voluntary effort, and not until last winter did we succeed in getting Congress to provide any public appropriation for this work. The amount provided is not as large as it ought to be, but it will doubtless be increased from time to time, and it is felt that much has been gained in securing endorsement of the principle of devoting public funds to this purpose.

Needs.

One of the most pressing needs is a municipal hospital for the care of chronic, inebriate and convalescent indigent patients, and especially for the care of indigent consumptives. The community is awake to the great need for proper provision for the care and treatment of tubercular patients, and an active campaign will be made to secure an appropriation to provide hospital accommodation for these classes, at the next session of Congress. There is also need for a comprehensive juvenile court law, and for legislation regulating child labor and providing for compulsory education.

Additional legislation is needed also, regulating the matter of the erection and maintenance of houses and tenements, with a view to improvement of the sanitary conditions, and in order that the deplorable conditions that have developed in many of the

larger cities with respect to the housing of the poorer classes may be avoided in Washington.

Bills touching all of the above mentioned things have been considered by Congress, and such progress has been made as to afford reasonable hope of the passage of some good bills next winter.

GEORGIA.

DR. J. D. LONGINO, ATLANTA.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The Georgia Legislature will assemble the latter part of this month (June, 1905), and a child labor bill will be introduced, backed by the united efforts of the Labor Organizations of the State and which they claim will be passed, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts that will be made to defeat it.

New Developments.

A Society of organized Charities has been instituted in Atlanta, composed of representative business and religious men under the name of "The Associated Charities," the object of which is to keep a record of all destitute persons applying for help, without interfering with any of the established modes of alms giving now in force. They will also undertake to give those out of employment work and to better their condition in general.

Needs.

The State makes no effort to keep a tabulated record of those in jail awaiting trial, or those in the Deaf and Blind Academies (except from their annual or biennial reports) nor in the Alms Houses.

Neither is there a record kept of the Charitable Institutions, the number of inmates therein, nor the number of juveniles in Orphanages.

The Government had a census taken of the inmates in Alms houses of Georgia last year, but the figures which are being tabulated in Washington are not yet available.

ILLINOIS.

J. MACK TANNER, SECRETARY BOARD STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES, SPRINGFIELD.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The Forty-fourth General Assembly passed several laws tending toward the betterment of charitable institutions and efforts, and failed to pass other equally meritorious measures.

The agitation for civil service reform in Illinois which was begun six years ago, has finally resulted in a law applicable only to the State Charitable Institutions. Had the advocates of a State civil service, shown the same spirit of concession in former years that was shown later to suggestions made by those in charge of the institutions, and who were in a position to know the limitations of the measures advocated, success would not have been so long delayed. The present law will not be operative until November 1, 1905. Under it, all places in the several State Charitable Institutions are classified, excepting only the Superintendents, chief clerks, and stenographers, and vacancies therein are filled by the State Civil Service Commission on competitive examinations. The Superintendents retain full power to discharge any employe for cause, other than religious or political, without appeal.

The measure further prohibits the levying or collection of any assessments or contributions for political purposes by any employe of the State.

A law was passed providing for State visitation of children placed in family homes. Under this act, every association that is incorporated for the care or placing out of dependent or delinquent children, and that is supported wholly or in part by public funds, shall report all children placed in family homes to the State Board of Charities, to be visited by visitors named thereunder. Power is given to the State Board to place any association, whose objects embrace the placing of children in family homes, under the provision of this act.

Until the present time, while the property rights of children have been safeguarded, there has been no law to prevent wholesale and indiscriminate traffic in children. Anyone who might get possession of a homeless and friendless child could do with him as he saw fit, but the present law when in force, July 1st, 1905, will regulate the surrender, placing, and transfer of children, by requiring all persons or associations to obtain the written surrender or consent of parents or guardians to a child, before it can be placed out, unless it be committed to such person or association by the court.

Copying after the Colorado law, an act was passed supplementary to the "Juvenile Court Act" which provides for the punishment of persons responsible for, or directly promoting, or contributing to, the condition that renders a child dependent, neglected or delinquent.

Efforts to secure suitable legislation for the establishment of a State Colony for Epileptics, and a Consumptive Sanatorium failed.

INDIANA.

AMOS W. BUTLER, SECRETARY BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, INDIANAPOLIS.

State Corresponding Secretary.

New Legislation.

(General Assembly of 1905.)

A law authorizing the establishment of a village for epileptics; appropriation, $150,000.

Additional provision for the insane and feeble-minded, including a new institution to be known as the Southeastern Hospital for Insane, appropriation, $560,000; two new cottages for the Northern Hospital for Insane, appropriation, $80,000; and a custodial cottage for boys at the School for Feeble-Minded Youth, appropriation, $50,000.

An appropriation of $315,000 for the erection of buildings for the Institution for the Deaf, which is to be moved from its present location in Indianapolis to a farm within fifteen miles of the city.

An appropriation of $235,000 for the erection of cottages for the Industrial School for Girls, which is to be separated from the Woman's Prison in Indianapolis and moved to a farm about seven miles from the city, purchased last year.

A law authorizing the management of the Indiana Reformatory to establish trade schools, to enlarge and improve the school of letters, to introduce military drill and to employ the inmates in the manufacture of goods on State account. The goods manufactured are to be used in the institutions and certain political divisions of the State, school books and desks and printed books and blanks except for the use of the Reformatory being excluded. The surplus is to be sold on the market at not less than the market price.

The management of the State Prison is authorized to establish a convict colony; also to allow to paroled prisoners transportation, clothing and $5 in money.

Two amendments to the criminal code, providing for the transfer of convicted prisoners from jail to the State Prison or Reformatory within five days after sentence is passed, and for a woman attendant for all women prisoners or insane patients to and from State institutions, unless accompanied by a near male relative.

A law providing that a defendant in a criminal cause, if found to be insane, shall be confined in a State Hospital for Insane, to be returned to the proper court for judgment when cured.

A law admitting wives and widows of soldiers, sailors and marines of wars of the United States, without regard to age or date of marriage, to the Soldiers' Home; also extending the benefits of the Home to army nurses.

A law requiring all State institutions and departments to make a report to the Governor within six days after the general election in November, setting forth information in relation to their management, receipts, expenditures, and needs, and furnishing plans and reliable estimates for all improvements for which appropriations are to be requested of the next General Assembly.

An amendment to the juvenile court law, changing in some particulars the method of procedure in the trial of children.

A law defining a "delinquent child," and providing for the punishment of any persons contributing to the delinquency of a child.

A law providing for a more strict regulation of the issuance of marriage licenses.

A commission to inquire into the need for the establishment by the State of a hospital for persons afflicted with tuberculosis.

The extension of the law concerning rape to cover carnal knowledge of a woman who is insane, epileptic, idiotic, feeble-minded, a pauper, a poor asylum inmate, or an inmate of the Woman's Prison or Industrial School for Girls, should serve to prevent some abuses of a character with which we have been familiar.

New Developments.

Conditions throughout the State in the field of charities are encouraging. The legislative appropriations for the State institutions were generous, and work on the new buildings provided for is progressing rapidly. In the counties the Boards of County Charities, of which there are now sixty-five, are doing excellent work in arousing public interest. In one place after another, county charity conferences have been held, and these have been well attended. Several new poor asylums and jails have been erected in the past year. A State organization of the Boards of County Commissioners has recently been effected.

There has been unusual activity in hospital work in the State. Numerous institutions have been enlarged and improved and in several towns a movement is on foot for the erection of new hospitals. The colleges, churches and clubs have taken up the work of public charities in the past year perhaps more than ever before. Butler College, Indianapolis, has established a social settlement at No. 1718 Arsenal Avenue. The State organizations of six of the largest religious denominations have appointed permanent Committees on charities, to keep the church in touch with the work and represent it at the State Conference of Charities and Correction. In the field of associated charities, societies have been organized at Greenfield and Wabash.

In the child-saving work there has been steady growth. The number of Boards of Children's Guardians has grown to thirty-two. In nineteen counties outside of Marion, in which Indianapolis is located, probation officers have been appointed and provision made for separate trial of delinquent children, under the juvenile court act of 1901. Under the same law Marion County has a separate court for children. It is doing a notable work. A conference was had in Indianapolis last October of all the organizations in Indianapolis that deal with children, and an outgrowth of this was the formation of a Children's Aid Society.

Needs.

The needs of the State: An institution for the treatment of tuberculosis; further extension of the Boards of County Charities, Boards of Children's Guardians and Juvenile Courts among the counties; a district workhouse for men and a separate workhouse for women for custody and employment of convicted prisoners not sentenced to the present State Institutions, such workhouses to be under State control; a law which will make possible better oversight of the county jails; an adult probation law; a more satisfactory law regarding the desertion of wife and children.

IOWA.

L. G. KINNE, MEMBER BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS, DES MOINES.

State Corresponding Secretary.

The Board of Control has repeatedly urged the establishment of a reformatory for youth and for first offenders, and hopes in time to secure one. No information (official) is gathered regarding jails.

The progress of the State in every department of Charity and Correction is steady and as rapid as a due regard for wise conservatism makes desirable.

There has been no new legislation since the full report of last year, which also recounted most of the needs.

KANSAS.

PROF. F. W. BLACKMAR, TOPEKA.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

1. Juvenile Court established in each county of the State. County probate judge is judge of this court. Children, who are dependent, neglected, or delinquent, are tried in this court.

2. New State Board of Charities consisting of three members, formerly five. Originally this board had control of the Penitentiary and Reformatory, but now has charge of but nine state institutions, viz: Topeka State Hospital, Osawatomie State Hospital, State Hospital for Epileptics, State School for the Deaf, State School for the Blind, State School for Feeble-minded Youth, Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Boys' Industrial School, and the Girls' Industrial School.

3. Provision made for a parole officer.

4. Child labor law, prohibiting the employment of children under 14 years of age in certain industries.

Needs.

A further development of scientific methods of management and control of inmates of charitable and penal institutions.

KENTUCKY.

EMMA A. GALLAGHER, SECRETARY CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

No meeting of Legislature since last report. The Truant Officers' bill enacted by the last General Assembly is now in effect. All Truant Officers are under the direct supervision of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and the School Boards of cities of the first, second and third class.

New Developments.

The park commission will expend about fifty thousand dollars in making beautiful and useful Central Park. A fine swimming pool to be used on alternate days by girls and boys; separate athletic departments; a mile track for men and boys to test their speed; and other enjoyable features suited to the very young and to the staid who seek the shade of the noble trees, can be found there for the public to enjoy as freely as the pure air they breathe.

The Jewish Free Hospital is completed and perfectly equipped in all departments. It was dedicated in May of this year, and is a credit to that ancient and progressive class of our people who are foremost in support of this organization and every good work.

BOSTON MEDICAL
AUG 29 1910
LIBRARY

Needs.

It is felt that the Asylums for the Insane should be enlarged to relieve overcrowded conditions, or else separate provision made for the criminal and convict classes.

There should be a State Hospital for Epileptics.

Remarks.

Earnest efforts are being made by a committee of the Commercial Club, of Louisville, to raise a fund for the construction of a Tuberculosis Hospital.

The keynote of a call by the Governor and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for a conference to be held was to effect a permanent State and County organization for the improvement of the common school system of Kentucky. Many changes in and amendments to the present school laws of Kentucky will be urged at the coming session of the General Assembly.

Several broad-minded men of Louisville, have made liberal donations towards establishing a Training School for the colored youth of the city, on condition that the School Board appropriate ten thousand dollars to assure its permanent establishment.

The education of the Hebrew immigrant is an important work launched by the Young Men's Hebrew Association of Louisville. The primary object will be to teach them the English

language and prepare them for American citizenship. A share of the recent refugees from Russia and Poland are in our midst and it is principally to help these that the work was inaugurated.

The neighborhood house is doing fine work in gathering up and educating neglected children and has the earnest support of our best women.

The woman's club is taking an active and most commendable part in enforcing the truancy laws against child labor.

The Kentucky Children's Home Society has adopted 83 children the past year as wards who are constantly under its watchful care. Through the society's influence material aid has been secured from the county authorities so that 450 children have been enabled to remain with their parents, thus centering home life and love in their hearts and characters. These also the society makes sure are reared in moral and Christian surroundings. The receiving home in a few months will have a new home where, on its twenty acres the Cottage System will be carried out.

LOUISIANA.

MICHEL HEYMAN, NEW ORLEANS.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

Our last legislature passed two bills: one to create a boys' reformatory, and the other a State Board of Charities and Corrections.

New Developments.

All the women's societies in New Orleans have united into a Woman's League, proposing to encourage organized charity, educational, moral and industrial progress.

The Kingsley House, our social settlement, continues to do fine work.

Needs.

Juvenile Courts and probation officers throughout the state.
Separation of children from adults in prison.
Enforced work for all sentenced prisoners.

Better modern jails and prisons.

Indeterminate sentence and reformatories for men and women.

Institutions for feeble-minded and epileptics.

More room for insane.

Camps for consumptives.

MAINE.

E. P. WENTWORTH, SUPT. STATE SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

State Corresponding Secretary.

LEGISLATION.

The citizens of Maine are much interested in the charitable and correctional work of the state and this interest has been deepened and strengthened by the National Conference held in Portland last summer. The last legislature treated the existing charitable and correctional institutions of the state with wise liberality, but did not establish any new institutions.

Three years ago an agitation was begun for the establishment of a state home for the feeble-minded. The census of 1890 reported 1591 feeble-minded persons in the state, and it is estimated that the present number is not less than 2,000, of whom about 300 are between the ages of 3 and 21 years. The state maintains 9 feeble-minded persons at the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded at Waverly, Mass., and 11 others are in different state institutions elsewhere at private expense. The legislature was strongly urged to establish such a Home this year, but it did not do so. It is believed, however, that the establishment of such a home cannot be long deferred.

Numerous petitions were presented to the legislature praying for the establishment of a State Home for the Blind, but favorable action thereon could not be obtained. At the present time 11 blind boys and 10 blind girls are supported by the State in the Perkins Institution at South Boston, Mass.

The last legislature enacted a special law for Cumberland County, providing for the appointment of a probation officer and authorizing the courts in certain cases of conviction to delay the

issuance of the mittimus and to allow the offender to go on probation in the care of the probation officer. The powers of the probation officer in criminal matters are as extensive as those of a constable or deputy sheriff and he may take, without warrant, any person legally in his care and bring him before the court for sentence, or for issuance of mittimus. This law also provides that a person arrested for a misdemeanor may, under certain conditions, be released by the court without a public arraignment. The releasing on probation of certain persons convicted of misdemeanor has been practiced in Maine for many years, but this practice has now been recognized by the laws of the state and made more efficacious by the appointment of the probation officer.

A law was enacted, providing that any male prisoner under sentence in any jail in the state might be employed in labor upon the public ways or in preparing materials for the construction or repair of such ways under such regulations as might be provided by the Inspectors of Prisons and Jails.

The statutes providing for the protection of children have been amended so as to enlarge their scope and make them more effective. Parents who cruelly treat their children by abuse or neglect may be punished, and if they neglect to provide for the proper maintenance and education of their children or allow them to frequent a disorderly house, gambling den, liquor saloon or other place injurious to their health and morals, they may be divested of their parental rights and the children may be committed by the court to a charitable institution or suitable private person, the term of commitment not to extend beyond 21 years if a male, or 18 years if a female. Orphans without means of support may in like manner be committed to a charitable institution or a private person.

The law for the protection of children furthermore makes it an offense for any person to allow a child under 16 years of age to enter or remain in a gambling den, house of ill-fame, or liquor saloon, owned, kept or managed by himself, and any person who by himself or by clerk or agent sells or gives to such a child any intoxicating liquors or permits such child to aid him in the illegal keeping or illegal sale of such liquor, is also guilty of an offense. The penalty for each of these offenses is a fine

not exceeding $100, or imprisonment not exceeding 60 days, in addition to the usual penalties for violation of the Maine liquor law. The employment of children in begging, in illegal, indecent, or immoral exhibitions, etc., is also prohibited. The Governor and Council are authorized to issue badges and commissions upon proper application to suitable persons in any city or town in the State, giving them authority to investigate cases of illegal and injurious treatment of children and to cause the provisions of law to be enforced.

New Developments.

Juvenile delinquents in this state are cared for in the State School for Boys at Portland, and the Maine Industrial School for Girls at Hallowell. The State School for Boys has been greatly improved this year by the occupancy of the two new cottages. The old congregate department at this school was entirely abandoned this year and the school is now wholly on the cottage plan. The Maine Industrial School for Girls has been steadily improving since it became a State institution and in a quiet, unobtrusive way is doing excellent work for the State and for the girls committed to its care.

The Maine Sanatorium at Hebron which was organized under a special act of the legislature in 1901 was opened this year. The institution is a private charity, but receives State aid. Its purpose is the scientific treatment of tuberculosis. The funds so far contributed have been used mostly for construction and the sanatorium has been obliged to charge the patients with the actual cost of maintenance, but the management expects to reduce the expenses to the patients as soon as practicable. There are now about twenty patients at the sanatorium. The results of the treatment have been gratifying to the patients and their friends, as well as to the management.

Needs.

Among the needs of the State may be mentioned the following:

1. A woman's reformatory. The first of January there were 5 women prisoners in the State Prison at Thomaston, and

19 in the county jails of the State. These women should all be cared for in an institution devoted exclusively to the care and reformation of women.

2. A State Home for the feeble-minded.

3. A State Home for the blind.

4. An Intermediate Reformatory on the Elmira plan for boys and young men who are too old or too vicious to be suitable subjects for the State School for Boys.

5. The extension of the probation law of Cumberland County to the other counties of the State.

MASSACHUSETTS.

JOSEPH LEE, BOSTON,

State Corresponding Secretary.

We have advanced by legislation and appropriation along three main lines. By appropriations for the care of the insane and feeble-minded we have arranged to cut off a little more of the supply of those who are born wrong. By creating a commission, with an active and determined propaganda back of it, to study trade schools, we have taken a long step in the policy—inaugurated by the starting of our textile schools in Lowell, New Bedford and Fall River — of preparing the citizen directly for useful work at the state expense. Thirdly we have, by legislation in regard to drunkenness, lessened the extent to which we have made the commission of a fault an occasion for sending a man to a school of crime.

Legislation.

One of the laws to diminish the evils of our present penal system for dealing with drunkenness provides for the release of persons arrested for drunkenness by the officer in charge of the police station—upon recommendation of the probation officer where there is one — with power of review reserved to the court. This law is chiefly in the interest of first offenders, especially the large number who are arrested Saturday night and who have of necessity been held for the session of the court on Monday morning. The other bill provides that, if the court finds he "will not

probably default, and that it will not be detrimental to the interests of the public," a person sentenced to the payment of a fine of less than ten dollars "shall" be given an opportunity on probation to pay the fine, instead of being sent to prison for non-payment. This law tends to abolish the system by which Massachusetts has sent some 15,000 persons every year to prison not for commission of crime, but for inability to pay fines.

The great advance embodied in these two bills was secured by the combined action of the Civic League, which took up last June the question of improving our laws on this subject; of the Massachusetts Prison Association, which has borne the heat and labor of the day in this matter for many years; of the State Conference of Charity, which discussed the question at Springfield in November; of Governor Douglas, who strongly recommended these measures in his message; and of a majority of the Judiciary Committee of the Legislature, composed of men of unusual character and ability, more concerned with giving the state good legislation than with any plans for putting a governor of the opposite political party in a hole.

Another bill that came up more or less in connection with the "drunk" bills, provides for two women probation officers in two of the Boston local courts.

The three tramp bills of last year are supplemented by two bills which make our tramp legislation fairly complete. One provides that tramps in almshouses must be kept separate from other inmates, and the other requires cities and towns that put up wayfarers to provide places in conformity with conditions prescribed by the State Board of Health, and to make their lodgers work. This last bill was brought forward by the State tramp officer provided for last year, and is part of his effective service. The large private tramp barracks, though subject to police license and supervision in cities of over 50,000 inhabitants, are now the chief obstacles to complete sterilization.

The law extending the limitation of the working time of women and persons under eighteen in mercantile establishments to 58 hours a week so as to include the month of December was successfully defended against a powerful attack; laws that persons under sixteen years old who cannot read and write shall

not be employed in manufacturing and mercantile establishments, and shall go to school, were passed. "Sweat-shop" legislation was perfected. A bill prohibiting persons under sixteen from working between 6 p. m. and 6 a. m., was killed in the Senate.

Provision has been made for requiring surety from a husband or father fined for non-support.

The physician, nurse, or whoever is in charge of an infant whose eyes look bad within two weeks of his birth must write to the Board of Health. An appropriation of $25,000 was made toward a hospital for prisoners with tubercular diseases and one of $2,000 for an exhibit of the means of preventing tuberculosis; but the Senate killed the consumptives' hospital.

You can't commit so much of a smoke nuisance in Boston as you could once unless you are a public service corporation or a railroad, in which case you have a pull with the committee on cities and get an exempting amendment.

Perhaps the most significant and interesting thing done by the legislature was the provision, opposed by the trade unions, for a commission of nine, representative of manufacturing, mercantile, educational and labor interests, to look into the subject of industrial and technical education — that is to say, trade schools. The plan behind this resolve is to make the trade schools a reaching down of our industries into the sphere of education in order to train for themselves efficient workers. The schools are likely to include practical—perhaps traveling—schools of farming.

A bill providing that one of the eight justices of the central municipal court in Boston should be assigned to do practically all the juvenile work was defeated—largely, I think, because it was not radical enough to seem worth while. But the court has since assigned a separate room for such cases. The Civic League is conducting a campaign through the state for the better observation of our law for separate trials for children.

A bill providing for the inspection by the State Board of Charity of institutions exempted from taxation as charities was introduced by the Board in the belief that the Roman Catholic opposition of previous years had been withdrawn. But although the bill was in charge of a Catholic member of the Board and had

the support of prominent members of the Saint Vincent de Paul Society, it proved to be still premature and was defeated. A bill was passed providing that "no minor child in the care or under the supervision of any state board of charity, or of any state commission, or state board of trustees, shall be denied the free exercise of the religion of his parents, or his surviving parent, or of his parents if they are both deceased, nor the liberty of worshiping God according to the religion of his parents, whether living or deceased." The avowed object of this bill is that state wards under 21 years of age whose parents, living or dead, are or were Catholics shall be placed in Catholic homes. It has been the policy of the trustees of the Lyman and Reform Schools, at whom the bill was especially aimed, to place Catholic children in Protestant homes only when good Catholic homes could not be found, or (as is frequently the case), could be found only in cities when the best interests of the boy or girl required a country life. For courageously opposing this bill Charles H. Washburn, one of the trustees of the Lyman and Reform Schools, was attacked as a "bigot," and was not reappointed by the governor when his term expired. The Catholic put in Mr. Washburn's place is said however, to be a most excellent appointment, while Mr. Washburn himself has been appointed to fill the unexpired term of another trustee since resigned. In spite of natural differences of opinion the general feeling between Catholics and Protestants is better than ever before, owing largely, I think, to their meeting in the promotion of good work in the State Conference of Charity and, in Boston, as workers for the Public School Association.

The Insane.

An important achievement of the year has been the final and complete assumption by the state of the care of the insane. During the calender year 1904 the state took charge of the 379 insane persons remaining in city and town almshouses, absorbed the increase in the total number of insane which this year amounted to 354, and ended the year with a decrease in the overcrowding of its institutions, of 200 beds and with 600 more beds in process of construction. The legislature continued, under advice of the State Board of Insanity, the policy of a steady annual provision

to catch up with what remains of the work of making adequate provision for the mentally defective by appropriations of $611,-655 for our institutions for this class of persons; which money, it is calculated, will provide for 518 patients and employes and thereby cover the annual increase of about 367 with a substantial net gain. With certain plans for the more economical use of existing space it can now be said that the mere problem of providing for all our insane, including the annual increase, has at last been solved. The next question is how to keep the number down. In this direction several things are being done. First: great care is being taken to secure whole or partial support from friends and relatives wherever circumstances justify it. This policy has the double advantage of decreasing the burden of the state and of increasing the interest of the family and friends in the patient and making them more desirous of receiving him back into normal surroundings when possible. Secondly: much is being done to facilitate and promote discharge. Family care has increased from 159 to 213, and the year ended with 16 of these cases self-supporting—an increase of 8 over the year before—while 4 had been discharged. Important legislation of the year promoting family care is: (1) that institutions can provide such care (and not alone the State Board as heretofore), (2) that the State Board (as well as the institutions) can discharge patients on probation, and (3) that the term of such probation shall be not 60 days but six months.

Legislation calculated to lessen the inflow by diminishing the total amount of insanity provides for the voluntary admission to state institutions of persons sane enough to make the application for themselves, not requiring as heretofore that they shall be so sane that they could not have been committed by the court. The Board of Insanity also recommends that general hospitals should receive mental like other diseases, but "under no circumstances should the full functions of an insane hospital be assumed. Its noise and violence should be eliminated. Forced detention should not be permitted."

In the matter of taking care of the feeble-minded we have not yet caught up. The year's advance in this direction is represented by appropriations of $210,600 (included in the $611,-

655 above), providing for 250 more inmates at the Waltham School for Feeble-minded and its annex at Templeton, and for 100 more patients at the epileptic hospital, most or all of whom will be taken from the School for the Feeble-minded.

New Developments.

The great new development of the year has been the more complete entrance of the women's clubs into the legislative arena. As auxiliaries to the Civil Service Reform Association they smothered a Spanish Veteran's Exemption bill in record time. They, or sections of them, were, it is true, defeated in bills looking toward truth and decency in advertisements, to regulate the present outrageous percentage of alcohol in patent medicines, and for pure food; and the penalty for falsely stamping or labeling packages containing any kind of fruit or food was actually reduced from between $100 and $500 to between $25 and $100. But these are victories for the public poisoners for which, I venture to prophesy, they will be kicking themselves for the next twenty years.

MICHIGAN.

L. C. STORRS, SEC'Y BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES, LANSING,

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

There are pending in the Michigan Legislature at this date, bills providing for juvenile courts; for the punishment of adult persons responsible for or contributing to the delinquency of children under sixteen years of age. There is good promise of the passage of these bills. There is also a bill providing for a State hospital for tuberculous cases. The passage of this bill in its present form is very doubtful; the objection to it being the large appropriation asked. The need of it, however, will not be entirely disregarded, and something will doubtless be provided in the way of an inexpensive testing of the extent of the need.

MINNESOTA.

A. W. GUTRIDGE, SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, ST. PAUL.

State Corresponding Secretary.

The legislature appropriated $40,000 for a nurses' dormitory at the State Hospital for the Insane at St. Peter and $75,000 for a like purpose at the State Hospital at Fergus Falls. $40,000 was appropriated to build another cottage for the chronic female insane at the asylum at Anoka and an equal amount for a like purpose at the asylum at Hastings. Another cottage has been built on the farm connected with the School for the Feeble-minded at Faribault.

Work was begun by the last legislature looking to the purchase of a site for the State Hospital for Crippled and Deformed Children which would better permit of enlargement.

A tuberculosis camp has been established by private parties, chiefly residing at Minneapolis, in the northern part of the state, known as the Piney Ridge Sanatorium. It has just been opened for the reception of patients. The legislature has appropriated $50,000 for the completion of the public sanatorium for tuberculosis at Walker.

The last legislature appropriated $75,000 to purchase a site suitable for making enlargements to the State prison at Stillwater. It is expected that this will result in time in an entirely new prison, as the present site is unsatisfactory.

Legislation.

Besides making the appropriations for the maintenance and improvement of the state institutions the 1905 session of the Minnesota State Legislature enacted many laws affecting charitable, correctional, and social questions.

The most important of these, doubtless, was the Juvenile Court law, applicable to the cities of Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth. The law follows the Illinois statute on this subject. Considering the fact that there were already in force in these cities an excellent probation system with paid officers, a law forbidding the placing of children up to 14 years of age accused of wrong-

doing, in jail while awaiting trial, and a law requiring judges to clear the court room, even of reporters, during the hearing of cases affecting juveniles, the people there feel that they have quite complete legislation affecting children. A modest bit of legislation relating to the powers of county commissioners, was enacted, which it is believed is of much significance. It gives the various Boards of Commissioners the power to be represented at the expense of the county at the State Conferences of Charities and Correction. This will certainly raise the standard of intelligence in the management of jails and almshouses and in the administration of public out-door relief.

Other measures bearing upon charity, reform and correction, which became laws, were those to prohibit the furnishing of intoxicants to paroled prisoners, to make abandonment of wife or children a misdemeanor, to provide interpreters for deaf and dumb persons being examined for insanity, to enlarge the powers of the State live stock board—a board empowered to slaughter tubercular dairy cows, to admit wives, widows, and mothers of soldiers to the State Soldiers' Home, to establish a state bureau of child and animal protection—really an enlargement of the powers of the State Humane Society, to make unlawful the assignment of wages as security for money borrowed, to establish a free State employment bureau, and to establish county schools of agriculture and domestic science.

New Developments.

Under this head may be mentioned a gift of $40,000 as a memorial to their parents made by Charles S. and John S. Pillsbury to the Plymouth Congregational Church of Minneapolis, to permanently establish and enlarge a settlement which that church has been for some years conducting upon the condition that the church raise $20,000 for the maintenance of the work. The church has met the condition and the plans are being worked out. The settlement will be named after the chief donors, the ground purchased for the site will give ample room for a play ground and out-door gymnasium. It is planned to equip the new building in the best manner, conduct it on broad lines and make it a neighborhood center.

Another development deserving note was the action taken by the electors of the city of St. Paul last November. By popular vote it was substantially ordered that $10,000 a year be appropriated from the public treasury for the establishment and maintenance of public play-grounds. Considering the fact that independent of this, the Park Board maintains one well-equipped play-ground, and the Health Department one that is considered a model, St. Paul feels well off in this important field of social work.

Needs.

The greatest need unprovided for in this state is that noted last year, an Industrial School for Girls. Political considerations succeeded in defeating the bill to establish such an institution, although supported by the State Federation of Women's Clubs, the Board of Control and the intelligent people of the State generally.

Remarks.

A state work which is very effective in Minnesota is its system of visiting state agents. One such agent connected with the State Prison and Reformatory finds employment for and takes general charge of paroled convicts. Two, a man and woman, are employed by the State Training School, inspecting the homes before children are allowed to return and frequently visiting them and meeting them after they are paroled. In connection with the State Public School there are four of these agents always at work inspecting homes before children are placed in them and visiting the children afterwards. The total number of visits made by these agents at the last named institution last year, was 1,398.

The work carried on by the state in returning insane patients to the state and neighborhood in which they have a legal settlement is felt to be productive of good and kinder to the unfortunates as it places them nearer relatives and friends.

MISSOURI.

MISS MARY E. PERRY, VICE PRESIDENT STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The last General Assembly passed a compulsory education law, which provides that every parent, guardian, etc., shall send his child between the ages of eight and fourteen to some school for at least half of the entire session. Home instruction is allowble if equivalent in opinion of a court. Children between fourteen and sixteen must attend school when not engaged in useful employment. Temporary excuse granted when parents are too poor to provide proper clothing; when child is mentally or physically incapacitated; where school is two and one-half miles from home; where child's labor is necessary to support the family; where child has completed common school course. Parents who fail to make children attend school shall be warned by attendance officers. If the parent fails to comply within ten days he may be fined from $10 to $25, or imprisoned from two to ten days, or both fined and imprisoned. Employers of children who violate this law shall be fined from $25 to $50 for each offense. Prosecutions under this law shall be brought in the name of the State of Missouri before any court of record. A parental school is authorized by the Board of Education under this law.

Another law passed is, those who have charge of public institutions for delinquent and dependent children shall have power to arrange for their education with the Boards of Education in places of more than 100,000 inhabitants.

A National Child Labor Committee was formed in St. Louis May 14th, 1905.

NEBRASKA.

REV. A. W. CLARK, OMAHA.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The most important bill passed by the recent legislature of Nebraska was the "Juvenile Court Law.' So much sentiment had been developed in Nebraska in favor of this law there was not a dissenting voice in either branch of the legislature. Within a few weeks after adjournment of the legislature steps were taken for carrying out the provisions of this law in the two cities of Omaha and Lincoln. Good results have already followed and still greater results are anticipated after some experience in the work on the part of those who carry the responsibilities.

A companion bill to this was a "Law establishing the responsibility for delinquency and dependency of children."

Mention should be made also of a law enacted for "The registration of vital statistics."

Another bill that became a law which deserves mention related to the welfare of infants and makes provision that all lying-in hospitals shall be under the supervision of the State Board of Health, and that all persons who conduct such places shall first obtain a permit from the State Board of Health. This measure has long been needed, especially in Omaha.

In addition to these measures some important changes were made with reference to some of the State institutions and very important measures adopted. One of these made fundamental and far-reaching changes in the Home for the Friendless by forbidding the admission or retention of any and all boarding children, and providing that only children eligible for adoption should be admitted. In addition to those a special measure was adopted, making provision that the Home for the Friendless should be a hospital for crippled, ruptured and deformed children and for those who may be suffering from diseases which are likely to render them deformed, and making provision also for their education and for the government of said hospital.

All in Nebraska who are interested in the welfare of children greatly rejoice in this provision that has been made for the cripples. The newly appointed superintendent of this hospital for cripples is Dr. A. P. Lord, of Omaha, a noted orthopedic surgeon, with Dr. H. Winnett Orr, of Lincoln, assistant. Another important measure relating to one of the State institutions was the abolishment of the "Board of Visitors" of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Homes located at Grand Island and at Milford, leaving the work of that Board largely in the hands of the State Board of Charities.

Another somewhat startling measure was passed by the legislature and became a law, relating to the treatment of dipsomaniacs. This measure provides that all such may be sent to the Hospital for the Insane at Lincoln for treatment. It was not thought advisable to incur the expense of a separate building for the treatment of these persons, and since the Insane Hospital at Lincoln is designed for the reception of all cases of acute insanity it was deemed wise by the legislature to economize by sending dipsomaniacs to this institution. Many are watching with interest to see the results of this experiment, and few are prepared to prophesy very much as to what they shall be.

Mention might also be made of other bills which became law, namely, "Prohibiting marriage between cousins." Also "Prohibiting manufacture, sale and use of cigarettes and morphine and cocaine, except as medicine under prescriptions of physicians."

Needs.

Nebraska has three pressing apparent needs:

1. A great need evident to all physicians and to many citizens of the State is provision for proper care of epileptics. No provisions have been made for separating them either at insane hospitals or at the Institution for the Feeble Minded.

2. The second most pressing need in Nebraska is provision for proper care of dependent old people. It is estimated that not less than 1,000 are to-day suffering.

3. Another great need is provision for the adult feeble-minded of the State.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

MRS. LILIAN C. STREETER, CHAIRMAN OF STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, CONCORD.

State Corresponding Secretary.

A law was passed in 1903 providing for State care for all indigent insane to take effect gradually, all the county insane to be put under State care by January 1, 1909.

The State School for the Feeble-minded, opened February, 1903, is much crowded. It has 68 inmates and a waiting list of 87.

There are no State institutions for the deaf, dumb and blind, but the State appropriates $14,000 annually for their education in institutions outside the State.

Legislation.

The legislation of 1905 was negative rather than positive in charitable and correctional matters — only two bills introduced by the State Board of Charities were favorably acted upon. A bill was passed providing for the retention of feeble-minded women inmates at the State School for the Feeble-minded after they reach the age of twenty-one, though it did not include custodial care for all the feeble-minded women of the State of child-bearing age, as was requested. And another bill was passed striking out the word "indigent" in the statute providing for the education of the deaf, dumb and blind.

Bills providing for a Juvenile Court and Probation system, establishing a State Workhouse, making wife desertion a penal offense, establishing a separate building for an Industrial School for girls, and a separate building for epileptics at the State School for the Feeble-minded, and putting the State Prison and State Insane Hospital under the supervision of the State Board of Charities, were acted upon unfavorably.

New Developments.

A Charity Organization Society, the first in the State, has been established in Concord, beginning its active work March 1,

1904, and plans are now being made in two other towns for the establishment of similar societies. The State Conference of Charities and Correction established a Standing Committee upon Charity Organization in 1904, and at the next annual meeting held in February, 1905, the report of this committee roused more discussion and interest than any other, and money was voted the committee from the Conference funds for missionary work.

Needs.

The needs of the State are the same as reported a year ago, i. e., reform in the management of county jails and houses of correction, and the establishment of a State Reformatory or Workhouse; the establishment of separate juvenile courts and the enactment of probation laws; stringent legislation regarding wife and child desertion; an Industrial School for Girls, and a separate building for epileptics at the State School for the Feeble-minded.

The State Prison and State Hospital for the Insane should be under the supervision of the State Board of Charities and Correction. At present they are supervised only by the governor.

There is no public system of child-saving. The dependent children of the State are under the direct care of the County Commissioners who have entire charge of placing them out. The State Board of Charities simply has the power of visiting them when placed and making recommendations.

Remarks.

More interest has been shown in the Charities and Correction of the State during the past year than ever before, and a growing intelligence upon these subjects is everywhere manifest.

Public opinion is especially strong in favor of reform in the treatment of the criminal classes.

NEW JERSEY.

REV. FRANCIS A. FOY, AVONDALE.

State Corresponding Secretary.

The year has been marked by some notable efforts to increase the scope and efficiency of our State system of Charities and Corrections.

The principle of State supervision for which the State Charities Aid Association has striven so long is at last recognized in an act, promoted by the Governor, creating the office of Commissioner of Charities and Corrections. How far this act will meet the requirements of real and effective supervision remains to be seen as the system provided is unique and the commissioner is new to such work, but he is a man of high character and ability and has made an excellent beginning.

The project for a Woman's Reformatory which the Legislature took under its wing in 1903, by the appointment of a commission, has been indefinitely postponed, in the hope that a substitute measure, increasing the age of admission to the State Home for Girls from sixteen to nineteen, would be sufficient for the present. This solution is not accepted by the friends of the original plan, some of whom are now considering the project of separate reformatories for women in at least the larger counties.

An effort was made to place the work for discharged prisoners under the sanction of the State, by the appointment of a State Parole Officer. The Legislature rejected the original proposition for an independent salaried officer, but provided that the keeper of the State prison should appoint from time to time one of his inspectors or one of his deputies to act as parole agent.

The State Charities Aid Association which has long striven to abolish the pernicious fee system of compensation for public officials scored a notable success in the passage of a bill to place the compensation of sheriffs in counties of the first class upon a salaried basis. A strenuous effort was also made by a separate bill to place the compensation of surrogates, registers, county

clerks, and the sheriffs of all the counties in the state upon a salary basis, but failed.

The tenement house law enacted a year ago was subjected to some serious attacks in the recent session of the legislature. The failure of these attacks indicates the fixed nature of public sentiment in the state on tenement house requirements.

The work for a State Sanatorium for tuberculous diseases is still in progress and the managers of the work in their third annual report state that the building will be ready for use by the end of the present calendar year.

Social settlements of the broader type are developing in New Jersey. A state organization of settlement workers has been formed. A negro social settlement is being established in Newark; and the Newark Settlement Association is leading the way in some important movements of a civic and educational character. Recreation centers and summer camps are the outcome of this larger activity in Newark.

Under the title of Industrial Betterment Work, the Bureau of Statistics of Labor and Industries of New Jersey, in its twenty-seventh annual report, calls attention to the efforts which are being made by various manufacturing concerns throughout the state to afford facilities for social and industrial improvement among their employes.

The Child Labor law has been well enforced and has given great satisfaction. There should be an amendment prohibiting children under sixteen from working at night. Children between fourteen and sixteen are now working from 5:30 p. m. until 2 and 3 o'clock in the morning in the glass blowing districts.

There also needs to be a closer co-ordination of work between the department of labor and our educational system.

The appointment of truant officers by the school boards should be mandatory instead of permissive, as now; and they should make concurrent investigation with the department of labor into factory employment, and should report through their respective boards, to the department of labor any observed violations of the child labor law. Truancy itself is a serious problem throughout the state and it is the more difficult of solution because of the

crowded condition of existing schools and the tardiness of the tax paying public in making provision for additional schools.

The Children's Protective Alliance of New Jersey, organized "to focalize all the social forces in this state which are working for the welfare of the child and the preservation of the family life," has evolved into what promises to be a very useful organization. We need state regulation of child caring work. Special provision should be made for investigation in cases of scandal. Foreign societies should be required to give security that children placed out in this state shall not become public charges.

Compulsory scientific treatment of dipsomania should be dealt with.

We need an asylum for the criminal insane. We need an extension of the probation system and of juvenile courts into many of the counties which have not as yet adopted them.

NEW YORK.

ROBERT W. HEBBERD, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

A large amount of excellent legislation affecting the charities of the State was enacted by the Legislature of 1905. The act of most importance, perhaps, was that which amended the Lunacy Law by restoring the individual boards of managers of the State Hospitals for the Insane with somewhat limited powers of management. By another act, amending the State Charities Law, the State Board of Charities, with the approval of the governor, was given authority to transfer the inmates of one State charitable institution to another. The principal purpose of this act is to secure a more logical classification of the inmates of the institutions for the feeble-minded and idiotic. Through an amendment to the Poor Law, the County Superintendents of the Poor and other poor law officers are required to report monthly to the State Board of Charities, the names of and other facts with relation to children placed in family homes.

Amendments were made to the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Penal Code for the purpose of improving the juvenile

court and probation laws of the State, and a bill was passed providing for the appointment by the Governor of a Commission to investigate the operations of the probation system and report to the Legislature of 1906. Provision was also made for the appointment of a commission to consider the construction of State prisons and the best disposition to be made of the Eastern New York Reformatory at Napanoch.

Conditions and Needs.

Conditions in the prisons, penitentiaries, jails and reformatories continue to show improvement, but new structures are needed in many instances to keep pace with modern ideas as to the proper housing of prisoners. The inspections and reports of the State Commission of Prisons, have secured many improvements in jail construction and management, but the frequent changes in the officers in charge of the jails, owing in part to the constitutional prohibition of the re-election of sheriffs to succeed themselves, make reforms difficult of accomplishment. It is believed that the extension of the civil service law to the counties now exempt from its provisions, would help to secure better management of the jails.

Many improvements have also been secured in almshouse construction and management during recent years, largely through the inspections and reports of the State Board of Charities, the visitations of the State Charities Aid Association, and the co-operation of the local authorities. The extension of the civil service law to these institutions, in counties now exempt from its provisions, would, it is also believed, be productive of good results. A pressing need that still exists is for the removal of the feeble-minded, the idiotic and the epileptic from the almshouses to the appropriate State institutions. This cannot, however, be fully accomplished until the State institutions are greatly enlarged. The hope is to have the almshouses become in time simply homes for the aged and dependent poor of normal mind.

The chief need of the institutions for the insane, idiotic, feeble-minded and epileptic, is for their enlargement. The Legislature of 1905, on the recommendation of the governor, made larger appropriations than usual for this purpose, but increased

appropriations are still necessary to meet the demands and particularly to secure the removal of the idiotic, the feeble-minded and the epileptic from the almshouses.

The State Hospital for the Treatment of Incipient Pulmonary Tuberculosis at Ray Brook in the Adirondacks, has been opened and is in successful operation. There is great need for the establishment of local sanatoria for the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis, and in several of the counties movements are in progress to meet this demand.

NORTH CAROLINA.

MISS DAISY DENSON, SECRETARY BOARD STATE CHARITIES.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

Two laws touching Charities and Correction were passed by the last General Assembly, a stringent vagrant law and conditional pardon. The Directors of the Penitentiary recommended that a reform school for white boys be established and suggested that $50,000 of the surplus earnings of the convicts (net earnings over expenditures for four years amounted to $132,867.75) be so applied. A bill for the establishment of such institutions for each race and color was introduced and passed the Senate with only two dissenting votes, but met defeat in the committee of the House. This bill also contained the Juvenile Court law and probation feature. The Child Labor bill introduced was an advance in the age limit from the present law, 12 years to 14, with an educational qualification. This failed because only two years had elapsed since the passage of the original bill, and because it was recognized that our rural districts have not the school equipment for the admission of the children whom a compulsory school law would reach.

A bill for the care of idiots and epileptics was reported favorably by the committee. A bill for the paroling of prisoners was introduced late in the session.

A large increase was made in the appropriations for educational purposes, state and local bills were passed for the regulation

or prohibition of the sale of intoxicating liquors, also a strict divorce law. The legislature enlarged the powers of the Governor giving him the power to visit and inspect charitable and penal institutions. This will redound to the good of the institutions.

The educational policy inaugurated by Gov. Aycock will be continued by his able successor in office, Governor R. B. Glenn, and in addition the present governor is striving to signalize his term by an equally momentous industrial development.

Through these movements the moral tone of the people is becoming elevated and the prospects are bright for the charities of the state.

New Developments.

The corner stone of a Florence Crittenton Home was recently laid in Charlotte. A new orphanage is in process of construction at Elon, built by the Christian church. The Odd Fellows have decided to support a Home for the Aged and Infirm of that order. at Goldsboro.

The State Medical Society has appointed a committee of five to begin a fight against tuberculosis.

Several private hospitals have been established. The Roman Catholic Hospital at Greensboro opens on July 1 for the reception of patients.

The Raleigh Associated Charities has been very successful and is increasing in work and influence.

A number of Women's Clubs have been formed in the State. The Raleigh Club, numbering 200 members, is interested in the reform school and other forms of social service. It was organized during the past year.

Appropriations were made for increased accommodations at the State Charitable Institutions to the amount of $70,000; improvements, $55,300. These include additions to two hospitals for the insane, an amusement hall at a third, an infirmary for the blind children and a slight increase at the Soldiers' Home.

Seventy-five thousand dollars per annum was added to the pension fund of the Confederate veterans, making the amount $285,000 a year.

Needs.

It is generally understood that more room is necessary for the care of our insane; that some plan should be devised to prevent the incarceration of children with adult criminals and that this should comprise a system of caring for only the delinquent child in a reform school. An institution for the care of the feeble-minded is much needed. It has been recommended by the Board of Charities many times and by the principals of the schools for the deaf, dumb and blind. Compulsory education for the defectives is also urgently requested by these gentlemen. There is a growing sentiment in the state for compulsory education, and it will probably become a law in the case of the defectives. Classification of prisoners in the various state and county institutions and better facilities for religious training and reformatory work.

OHIO.

H. H. SHIRER, SECRETARY BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The General Assembly of Ohio has not convened since the last year's report was submitted.

New Developments.

During the past year the Juvenile Court system has been organized in Columbus, Toledo, Cincinnati and Dayton. The Juvenile Court in the city of Cleveland has been in operation for three years by authority of special act. All of these Courts are doing good work, and the system should be extended to all counties.

The Commission appointed to purchase land and erect buildings for a Hospital for the treatment of incipient pulmonary tuberculosis is now selecting a site. On account of the meagreness of the appropriation for this purpose very little can be done

before the next session of the General Assembly except to purchase land.

The work of the various Associated Charities in the larger cities has been pursued with the usual zeal and interest. Public officials are beginning to recognize the value of these organizations and are showing many evidences of interest in a practical way. An association known as the Federal Charities was organized in Toledo about one year ago.

Needs.

Although this State is doing much for the unfortunate classes of its citizens, it is apparent that more can and should be done. The two most urgent needs seem to be an institution for the treatment and education of crippled and deformed children and a hospital for convict and dangerous insane. Efforts will be made at the next General Assembly to secure one or both of these institutions.

There are many indications for favorable legislation for a new site for the State Prison.

OKLAHOMA.

L. H. HOLT, SUPT. OKLAHOMA SOCIETY FOR THE FRIENDLESS.

Corresponding Secretary.

There are so few statistics at hand that I am fearful the report will be of little value. But I will give you what I can, estimate others, and the report of new legislation may be of interest.

Legislation.

The following laws, helpful along the line of Charities and Correction, were passed by the Oklahoma Legislature of 1905.

1. Prevention of cruelty to animals.

2. Prohibiting the sale, giving away and disposal of cigarettes, cigarette paper and substitutes therefor.

3. Providing for the parole and rebate on penalties of persons convicted of crime and sentenced to the penitentiary.

4. An act to define child dependency, neglect and ill-treatment, and to prescribe methods for their protection.

5. To provide for the care and education of juvenile offenders.

6. To provide for moral and humane education in the public schools.

NEEDS.

We need everything, but especially reformatories for boys and girls, and a Juvenile Court Law.

Public opinion is being aroused and no doubt much will be both undertaken and accomplished as soon as statehood comes to us.

OREGON.

W. R. WALPOLE, SECRETARY CITY BOARD OF CHARITIES, PORTLAND.

State Corresponding Secretary.

LEGISLATION.

The Juvenile Court Law. Applies to judicial districts of one hundred thousand or more inhabitants, confining it in this state to the county in which the city of Portland is situated. The law was framed after careful study of the various laws of the country, and adapted to local conditions. It makes no provision for the salany of the probate officers; contains a provision for remanding to the proper court, at the discretion of the judge, of such cases as may be found to be incorrigible or incapable of reformation.

Adult Delinquent Law. Modeled after the Adult Delinquent Law of Colorado.

Indeterminate Sentence Law. Provides for the parole of first offenders after the minimum sentence shall have been completed — does not provide for a prison board, but places the parole power in the hands of the governor; applies to all offenses the maximum sentence of which shall not exceed twenty years.

Parole Law. Provides for the parole of a first offender, after sentence shall have been pronounced,— for any felony the maxi-

mum punishment of which does not exceed 10 years, or for a minor whose sentence does not exceed 20 years. Does not apply in case prisoner has been delivered to the penitentiary. Gives court power to appoint any person, or society as parole officer.

Child Labor Law. Amends present law in three important features: 1. Abolishes the affidavit, and requires an employment and an age and schooling certificate. 2. Amends compulsory education clause to cover the full term, instead of twelve weeks, eight of which, under the old law, were required in consecutive attendance. 3. Gives the Child Labor Commission the power to issue permits during the summer vacations to children over twelve years of age for such employment as in the discretion of the commissioners, is not detrimental to the health of the morals of the child. This was a strongly contested point, and the fate of the entire bill depended on its admission,— showing that the law is ahead of the sentiment of the state as yet. There is much less opposition, however, now than there was a year ago.

Law providing for the transportation of insane patients in charge of asylum attendants, instead of in care of sheriffs or their deputies. This law has been presented to each succeeding legislature for the past twelve years and has been bitterly fought by the politicians.

Law making it a felony for a man to be supported out of the earnings of a woman living in prostitution.

An appropriation of fifteen thousand dollars was made to purchase land and take initiatory steps to provide a state institution for the care of epileptics and feeble-minded persons. The matter to be in charge of the State Board of Building Commissioners, consisting of the Governor, the Secretary of State and the State Treasurer.

A law was passed making an appropriation of eighty-four ($84.00) dollars per inmate per annum to any institutions caring for wayward girls

New Developments.

An open air sanatorium for consumptives has been established.

A Travelers' Aid Association for protection of and procuring employment for girls and women.

Needs.

1. A State Board of Charities.
2. A law providing penalty for wife desertion.
3. Establishment of Houses of Correction.
4. Institution for care of delinquent girls.
5. Cottages for care of insane.

RHODE ISLAND.

GEORGE L. SMITH, CHAIRMAN BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, NYATT.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The Board of State Charities and Corrections may parole any of the inmates of the State workhouse and house of correction upon such terms, conditions, and limitations as said Board shall prescribe during the remainder of the term for which said inmates might be held in said workhouse and house of correction, and the board or any member thereof may terminate such parole at any time and order the return of such paroled person into actual custody. Any officer qualified to serve criminal process in this state and any employe of the board of state charities and corrections is hereby authorized to serve any such order and retake and return the person named therein to the state workhouse and house of correction. A prisoner who has been so returned to the state workhouse and house of correction may be detained therein for a period equal to the unexpired term of his sentence at the date of the issuance of the order for his return or may again be paroled by said board.

New Developments.

The appropriation of one hundred and thirty-two thousand dollars by the Legislature several years ago has enabled the Board to complete the present year an up-to-date dormitory for the excitable insane, and a beautiful dining room where between seven and eight hundred of the insane take their meals.

An orchestra of eight instruments play during the three meal hours.

The congregated dining room system has greatly relieved the crowded condition of our dormitories and the whole seems an improvement over having small dining rooms for each ward.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

W. B. SHERRARD, SIOUX FALLS,

State Corresponding Secretary.

The child saving work in this state is entirely in the hands of the Children's Home Society. Its work covers not only the whole field of juvenile dependency and delinquency, but it looks after degenerate adults also. It secured the erection of a hospital for feeble-minded, and at the last session of the legislature it caused the enactment of a law providing for the permanent custodial care of the feeble-minded.

It has done away with the necessity of orphanages, so that the only one in the state is a small one having between thirty and forty children, which is supported by the Norwegian Lutheran Church, most of whom come from adjoining states. It has the state policed by bands of devoted men and women who keep a quiet watchcare over the worthless and vicious elements in their several communities, so that there is not a child in the state on a poor farm, nor one in the custody of vicious or immoral parents, whose immorality can be proven in court. Perhaps the greatest achievement of the society has been the education of the public as to the rights of children. At first the judges were very reluctant to enforce the law, but the change in public sentiment has been so great that the courts no longer refuse to enforce it.

The Argus Leader, the leading daily paper of the state, in commenting upon the reduction of the commitments to the reform school, says that it was largely due to the effort of the Children's Home Society, in caring for the children before they became criminals. It has literally revolutionized the mining camps of the Black Hills, so that children are no longer found in dance halls and houses of prostitution.

It has the hearty support of all good people, Catholics and Protestants, supporting it alike. Catholic priests going so far as to take collections for it in their churches.

A strong pressure has been brought to bear upon the society to accept state aid, but knowing the evils of the state subsidization of private charities in other states, it has steadfastly refused to receive it.

Its support comes from the voluntary contributions of the people, without personal solicitation. It receives about one hundred and twenty-five new children annually, and its total enrollment is over one thousand, these have been placed in family homes. The society is confident that if the growth of the criminal classes is ever checked, it will be along the line it is hewing to. It also carries on a similar work in Wyoming. The expense of its work in both states is about $6,000 annually.

I think there are few states that can say they have no dependent children, who are a permanent burden on the public, as South Dakota can.

Legislation.

The recent legislature made provision to establish a twine plant and a shirt factory in the penitentiary. This with the work in the stone quarry will give employment to the convicts.

UTAH.

MISS GRACE M. PADDOCK, SALT LAKE CITY.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

The State Legislature of Utah which convened in February, 1905, passed the following reformatory measures:

An act providing for the establishment of juvenile courts in all cities of the first and second class, and providing for the appointment of judges and probation officers. This court is to have jurisdiction in all cases where the legal punishment or custody of delinquents under eighteen years of age is in question, also to have jurisdiction over parents or guardians of such delinquents.

An act was passed prohibiting the sale of fire arms to minors under the age of fourteen years, also the carrying of fire arms by such minors.

An amendment was enacted by the Legislature to read as follows: "The government and control of the State Prison, and the government and control of its affairs are vested in a Board of Corrections, which is hereby created and shall consist of the Governor ex-officio and two resident citizens of the State, both of which citizens shall not be of the same political party."

VERMONT.

REV. J. EDWARD WRIGHT, D. D.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Vermont has made some gains within the year in hospital service in its larger towns, and in the increased efficiency, and enlarged authority of its Board of Health, and in the establishment of a Tuberculosis Commission.

Its Legislature last fall improved the laws relating to child labor. Our law now forbids any employment of children under twelve in mill, factory, or work-shop, or in messenger service; and it does not permit children under sixteen to be employed in mill, factory or work-shop, unless they have attended school 28 weeks of that year. The new enactments require the annual examination at the expense of the state of the eyesight and hearing of all pupils in the public schools. All towns are now obliged to provide high, as well as common school education. The "War Claim Fund," of $240,000, has been set apart as the nucleus of a permanent State Common School Fund. The annual appropriation for the education of the blind, deaf, dumb and feeble-minded children of indigent parents has been nearly doubled—amounting now to $20,000. And a beginning has been made, through supplementing private benevolence by the conditional appropriation of $10,000, towards the establishment of a Teachers' Home.

Local option by townships, adopted by the State in 1903, has resulted in a serious increase in drunkenness, and consequent commitments to our jails and House of Correction.

VIRGINIA.

DR. WM. F. DREWRY, PETERSBURG.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

No session of the legislature since last report.

New Developments.

Steps have been taken toward establishing an Institution for dependent consumptives. Attached to the same institution will be cottages for pay patients.

Recognized Needs.

Reformatory or home for friendless girls; Sanatorium for Consumptives; School for Feeble-minded; better ways of collecting data regarding the dependent and delinquent classes.

Remarks.

A modern and well-equipped building has been recently completed and occupied at the State Penitentiary. At the Penitentiary farm, about twenty miles from the penitentiary, some canvas tents for the tuberculous inmates have been recently constructed.

The destitute in the counties and cities are cared for, usually fairly well, in the local institutions or in homes under the management of some religious or benevolent organization. Orphans who have no private home are usually cared for in the asylums or homes under the auspices of the several church organizations. There are a few homes for the aged. The state supports to a large extent a home for old soldiers. There is a private home for dependent widows of ex-Confederate soldiers.

All the insane of the state are being cared for in the state hospitals, three for the white and one for the colored insane. The tent care of the consumptives at the hospital for the colored insane at Petersburg has proven to be a success. Steps are being taken to have the white insane consumptives cared for in a similar manner.

WASHINGTON.

AUSTIN E. GRIFFITHS, PRESIDENT CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, SEATTLE.

State Corresponding Secretary.

New legislation was enacted at the last legislature of this state, held January, February and March of this year, as follows:

An act to provide for the apprehension, trial, treatment and control of delinquent children, under the age of seventeen years. This law is commonly known as the Juvenile Court Law, and modeled after the Colorado and Illinois statutes.

An act to further provide for the committing of juvenile offenders; boys between eight and sixteen, girls between eight and eighteen, upon conviction, except for murder or manslaughter, to reform school, until the boy arrives at the age of eighteen, and the girl at the age of nineteen, when they shall be discharged finally from all penalties incurred by such convictions.

An act to provide for the suspension of sentence for persons under the age of twenty-one years, convicted of misdemeanor or felony, and requiring such convicted person to report to the courts from time to time, and if after five years the court shall be satisfied of the good behavior of such convicted persons, such conviction shall be set aside and the case be dismissed.

An act providing for the appointment of a chaplain for the State Penitentiary.

An act prescribing further regulations for the practice of medicine.

An act providing further punishment for the crime of seduction.

An act providing for sanitary conditions in hotel and restaurant kitchens.

An act forbidding the sale of milk or any other food product in which formaldehyde or other poisonous substances shall have been mixed.

An act to further provide against the adulteration of food and fraud in the sale thereof.

An act to establish a Board of Commissioners for the promotion of uniformity of legislation in the United States.

An act providing that any relative or person injured by any intoxicated person, shall have the right of action for damages against persons selling the liquor which caused such intoxication. (The old law provided that the landlord and owner of the building where the liquor was kept should also be liable as well as the liquor seller.)

An act providing for the care of defective and feeble-minded youth, and establishing an institution therefor, at Medical Lake, Spokane County.

An act appropriating six thousand dollars for the use and benefit of The Florence Crittenton Home rescue work, in this State.

An act forbidding advertising of treatment and cure of venereal diseases.

An act further providing for the inspection of dairy barns and butter and cheese factories, and to prevent deception in determining the quality of milk and cream.

An act to provide against adulteration of meal, grain and ground food for feeding farm stock.

An act to provide for sending non-resident insane persons to their residence outside the state of Washington, at the expense of this State.

An act to prohibit the mixing of poisonous substances with crackers, bread or other edibles.

An act to prevent the acceptance of gifts, bonuses and commissions by agents, employes and officers of any firm, person, association or corporation. This statute is directed against what is commonly described as "graft" on the part of persons doing business for another.

An act further providing for the compulsory attendance of children between the age of eight and fifteen years, in the public schools and forbidding the employment of such children during the time schools are in session.

WEST VIRGINIA.

MRS. N. R. C. MORROW, FAIRMOUNT.

State Corresponding Secretary.

Legislation.

There has been no new legislation on Charities and Correction since the last report from this state.

New Developments.

The progress of the State in charitable matters largely centers in the State Humane Society, which is increasing its activity in every department.

Needs.

The greatest need of the State is the increase of the method of co-operation in charitable and reformatory work of which the Societies for Organized Charities stand as the chief exemplar.

WISCONSIN.

HERMAN GROTOPHORST, PRES. STATE BOARD OF CONTROL, BARABOO.

State Coresponding Secretary.

There has been no legislation affecting Charities and Correction since the last report, nor have there been any new developments deserving attention.

CANADA.

New Brunswick.

REV. HUNTER BOYD, WAWEIG.

Corresponding Secretary for the Province.

Legislation.

The Provincial Legislative Assembly acting upon the recommendation of the Special Commission to enquire into the condition of the Hospital for the Insane, have decided that the "Lunatic

Asylum" shall henceforth be known as the Hospital for Nervous Diseases. They have appointed an efficient superintendent, and issued new regulations respecting the classification of defectives, and the admission and discharge of patients.

New Developments.

A Children's Ward has been added to the Provincial General Hospital.

The Seamen's Institute has been taken over by the Salvation Army, and they have remodeled the place as a Traveller's Home.

The increased traffic in St. John in the winter season, especially in the matter of immigration, has called for increased activity on the part of Associated Charities in that city. The Hebrew community have also borne their share of labor in an admirable manner.

Needs.

Legislation is sorely needed to meet the truancy problem. A Juvenile Court ought to be established at once.

No effective measures have yet been taken for the adoption of the Children's Protective Act.

The Evangelical Alliance in St. John have suggested that a permanent chaplaincy be inaugurated for the Provincial Institutions in the city.

There is not an Associated Board of Charities in the Province, and no point of contact is found for officers of the county institutions.

A directory of the Charitable Institutions in the Province would be valuable, but none of the government officials are specially responsible for collecting material relative to charities and corrections. The greater part of the work, however, falls to be done in the city of St. John, and is as efficiently discharged as the funds will allow.

ONTARIO.

A. M. ROSEBRUGH, M. D., TORONTO.

Corresponding Secretary of the Province.

In the General Election in the Province of Ontario in January of this year there was a change in the government. The Ross or liberal party was defeated and the Whitney or conservative party came into power. It is too early to predict how this change will affect the charitable and correctional institutions of the province. It is gratifying to be able to state, however, that the indications are that the change will be salutary. The new government comes into power unusually strong, whereas the late government for a number of years was handicapped by having only a bare majority of supporters in the Legislature. The new government although not liberal in name, has already shown that it can devise liberal things. Liberal, almost princely, provision has been made whereby both the Toronto University and the Toronto General Hospital will be placed upon a sound financial basis. More liberal aid has been given to the Prisoners' Aid Association and the Salvation Army, and a grant has been made to the Ontario Society for the Reformation of Inebriates. Owing, however, to the shortness of the session and the pressure of other business the government was unable to introduce the proposed bill for the economic treatment of indigent inebriates. It will without doubt be introduced at the next session of the legislature. The Society for the Reformation of Inebriates has had a number of difficulties to contend with, but the indications are that it will be able to commence operations very shortly. This Society received the emphatic endorsation of the Ontario Medical Association at the annual meeting held recently.

During the year, Dr. W. R. Bruce Smith, of the Brockville Lunatic Asylum, was appointed Chief Inspector of Charity and Correctional Institutions for the Province of Ontario. This appointment has given unusual satisfaction as Dr. Smith has the entire confidence of the medical profession in Canada, and he is moreover a progressive man and in full sympathy with modern ideas with respect to charity, correction, and prison reform. The

new Provincial Secretary, Hon. W. J. Hanna, is also taking a sympathetic interest in the charity branch of his department, the good work of Mr. J. J. Kelso, the work of the Prisoners' Aid Association and the work of the Salvation Army.

An important step in advance has been made by the Federal Government, during the last year, in the interests of prison reform, namely, a parole officer has been appointed for the Dominion. This officer visits the prisons and penitentiaries of Canada, and makes such provision as he can for the employment of prisoners upon their discharge. Your correspondent had the privilege of suggesting such an appointment to the Inspector of Penitentiaries eighteen months ago.

An Institution at Woodstock for the care of Epileptics on the cottage plan is rapidly approaching completion.

QUEBEC.

RICHARD H. LANE, MONTREAL.

Corresponding Secretary of the Province.

It is a pleasure to report the following three distinct advances in our work during the past year for the social betterment of our people:

First. That although we have neither provincial nor municipal poor house, we have been able absolutely to abolish licensed street begging — a custom which came to us from the Latin countries. As far as our knowledge goes there is no other town of our population in America which has no municipal poor house and does not allow the residuum to obtain their bread by legalized begging.

Second. That the League for the Prevention of Tuberculosis has been doing for some time progressive and effective work both for the treatment of the incipient cases and for the care of advanced patients — for the latter, holding in view, the obligation to make their last days as comfortable as possible and also to minimize the danger from infection.

Third. The completion of two infectious hospitals at a cost of not far from half a million dollars, in different parts of our city, thereby giving us ample accommodation for these cases —

the lack of which, we regret to say, has been a disgrace to us for many years.

During the past twelve years we believe there have been no laws of importance regarding the social questions passed either by the Dominion Parliament at Ottawa or by the Legislature at Quebec.

At present our most trying problem is that regarding immigration. We have need of a much larger population to develop the resources of the Dominion, but this does not mean we want vast hordes of people who are neither bodily nor morally fit. We do not want and we do not need as strict immigration laws as there are in the United States, but on the other hand the Dominion of Canada will not consent to be a dumping ground for thousands of people who are forced upon us against their wishes, sometimes by foreign officers even within our borders. Nevertheless we are confident that by patience and study Parliament will be able to solve this most trying question.

OUT DOOR RELIEF

Reports were requested with regard to out-door relief, to be statistical as far as possible, otherwise to report as to its apparent increase or decrease. The following were received.

COLORADO.— A comparison of the counties reporting both years shows six per cent less distributed in charity in 1904 and 1903, the effect possibly of the abundant crops of grain and fruit produced in this state during 1904. Labor troubles and disturbed conditions in the mining camps caused an additional call for relief upon the authorities of such districts but this was more than compensated by the prosperity of the agricultural districts.

CONNECTICUT.— Recipients in 1902 12,850, in 1903 11,589, of whom 4,210 are reported as "Regular," the others "Occasional." Is not increasing out of proportion to the increase of population.

DELAWARE.— Partial report shows $12,721.46 expended in 1904 in New Castle county.

GEORGIA.— No report for the state, but in Atlanta calls for out-door relief are slightly on the increase.

INDIANA.—Out-door relief in 1904 amounted to $281,899.87; number of persons aided, 46,009, being 21,966 males and 24,043 females. These figures are slightly greater than were those for 1903, but much less than in some former years. In 1895 out-door relief in Indiana amounted to $630,168.79.

LOUISIANA.— The total amount of out door relief is decreasing.

MASSACHUSETTS — Presents an elaborate series of tables which may be found in the report of the State Board of Charity as "The Pauper Abstract," from them the following may be deduced: Out-door relief has been practically stationary for the past ten years. The approximate number of persons relieved in 1904 was about 1,100 more than in 1894, which, considering the increase of population cannot be a relative increase. The cost per inhabitant, however, shows an increase from $0.28.6 to $0.35.9, and the average weekly cost of each person relieved increased from $0.67.6 to $0.93.8. The total cost for the State increased from $700,453 to $907,116. (The figures used are those for all paupers, state and town).

MICHIGAN.— 33,390 "temporarily relieved" by county superintendents of the poor shows a decrease; 2,690 "permanent relief" outside of county almshouses; (several counties have no almshouses).

MISSOURI.—No public out-door relief is given in St. Louis except transportation. It is decreasing in Kansas City.

NEBRASKA.—The population of Nebraska is rapidly increasing, and as a result the public out-door relief is increasing. Relatively to population out-door relief is decreasing in Nebraska.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.— Statistics of public out-door relief have only been kept for the last four years. They show a steady and marked increase from 1901 to 1903. From 1903 to 1904 a decrease is noted. The figures are as follows: 1901, $170,893.57; 1902, $207,861.38; 1903, $241,821.17; 1904, $239,901.46.

NEW YORK.—During the year ending September 30th, 1903, public out-door relief was granted to 143,922 persons at a cost of $793,781.66. The numbers fluctuate with the times but are not thought to be increasing in ratio with the population. The adoption of more careful methods appears to prevent the extension of out-door relief.

NORTH CAROLINA.— Seventy-five out of ninety-seven counties report 2,689 persons receiving out-door relief at a cost of $69,612.65. There seems to be a decided decrease in out-door relief, and some increase, but not much, in in-door relief.

OHIO.— 59,967 persons received some form of out-door relief at a cost of $735,375.50. Average to entire population of the state is 1 to 69. This form of relief is about stationary.

OREGON.—Amount of public out-door relief is decreasing.

UTAH.— Salt Lake County relieves about 20,000 cases during the year.

WISCONSIN.—Statistics are not available to show the cost of out-door relief separate from in-door relief. The total cost of both together for 1904 was $529,336.84, as against $401,371.93 in 1889. The cost of poor relief to population for 1904 was $0.25 per capita.

NEW BRUNSWICK, CAN.— Considerable out-door relief is given by Alms House Commissioners, city councils and other institutions, but statistics are not available.

In nothing more plainly than in the few and vague reports on out-door relief, is the lack of trustworthy statistics shown. Here is a time honored method of charity which has been denounced as faulty for many years. It is considered, rightly or wrongly, to be among the most prolific causes of pauperism. Its evils have been so clearly realized in certain states and cities that it has been entirely abolished in them. Wherever it has been carefully studied and earnest efforts have followed to abate its evils and abuses the total amount has been immensely reduced. It has been the subject of numerous reports and papers to this Conference since the notable address by Mayor Seth Low, of Brooklyn, at the Boston Conference in 1881. Yet only a few of the States have any trustworthy figures about it. It is one of the largest "Charity Leaks" and one of the least regarded.

What can be done by a vigorous State Board which gives patient study and effort to the abatement of such evils, is shown in the report of the State Board of Indiana. There as the result of a campaign lasting, from the beginning of effort to collect trustworthy statistics to the final victory, almost ten years, the waste of money from out-door relief was reduced by about $400,000.00 annually. And at the same time the amount of in-door relief was also reduced, the number of almshouse paupers being diminished. It was clearly proved by the results that two-thirds of the money spent in out-door relief had been wasted and worse than wasted. The saving, which was almost

wholly due to the Board of State Charities, would defray, in one year, the entire expenses of the Board since its establishment and for thirty years to come.

STATE CONFERENCES OF CHARITIES.

The number of states holding Annual Conferences of Charities is increasing. The following are reported.

CALIFORNIA.— State Conference yearly.

DELAWARE.— No State Conference, but an annual public meeting is held in Wilmington under the auspices of the Philanthropy Committee of the New Century Club.

ILLINOIS.— State Conference will be held in Pontiac October, 1905. Secretary, Frank D. Whipp, Springfield.

INDIANA.— State Conference at Vincennes, October 28-31.

IOWA.— Annual State Conference. Secretary, Dr. Margaret A. Schaffer, Iowa Citv.

KANSAS.— State Conference at Topeka, November, 1905. Secretary, H. W. Charles, Topeka.

MICHIGAN.— The Twenty-third State Conference was held in Bay City, December, 1904.

MINNESOTA.— Annual State Conference.

MISSOURI.— State Conference will meet at Booneville, November, 1905.

KENTUCKY.— State Conference will meet in November, 1905. President, T. D. Osborne, Louisville.

NEBRASKA.— Annual State Conference.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.— The State Conference meets biennially in Concord during the session of the Legislature, and upon alternate years in different towns throughout the State. Secretary, Miss Caroline E. Evans, Concord.

NEW JERSEY.— The Fourth State Conference was held in Trenton, February, 1905.

NEW YORK.— The Sixth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction is to meet in New York City, November 14 to 16, 1905. President, Nathan Bijur, Esq., New York; Secretary, Hon. George McLaughlin, Albany, N. Y.

OHIO.— State Conference will be held at Tiffin, November, 1905.

OREGON.— Annual State Conference.

VIRGINIA.— State Conference will meet in Petersburg in the fall of 1905.

IV.

Children.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY CHARLES DEWEY HILLES, CHAIRMAN.

The amalgamation of several sections of the Conference under the comprehensive title of "Children" precludes a discussion in detail, in the report of the Committee, of the various phases of child-saving work. It discourages elaboration and tempts to generalization.

The wise, timely, intelligent and irresistibly vigorous campaign for the enactment and enforcement of child-labor laws has produced gratifying results. It has stirred the whole country. Illinois, Massachusetts and New York have secured stringent statutes and almost all other eastern and northern states have more or less effectually checked the tendency toward forcing or permitting children to become premature bread-winners. The arguments of the advocates of drastic restriction are uncontradicted and unanswerable. The principle stands out with increasing clearness. Only the supremely selfish profess to believe that the pittance paid children in factories, mines and elsewhere will compensate, in any case, in the least degree, for the inevitable impairment of mental and physical faculties. The helpless child is coerced to draw on his capital account in the years when he should be husbanding his physical resources and increasing his store of knowledge and wisdom. The gain to the child, in money, and the loss to the man, in mind and body, are terribly disproportionate. The state must ultimately write this heavy item off to profit and loss. Conditions are fundamentally wrong when abuses of this kind are permitted to continue. This conference can not give greater practical assistance to the Pacific Coast than to lend a hand to the men and women who have enlisted in the fight to free young children from such controlling influences.

The East has been perfecting her compulsory education laws. The responsible authors of children are taught not only that their offspring, while tender in years, must be exempt from the strain of such regular employment as will be injurious, but that they must attend school until a prescribed standard shall have been attained. In many of the older states, particularly those in which corporal punishment has been abolished from the schools, the truant school, or compulsory boarding school, or parental school, has been found indispensable. The compulsory education law becomes inoperative unless the penalty can be enforced. Orphanages and homes for dependent children rarely have the equipment and organization to control habitual truants, and in the eyes of the law, such children are not delinquents. The Supreme Court of New York has spoken the last word on this subject. Some states, Massachusetts for example, provide numerous parental schools which very strongly resemble the model training schools. For this reason some other states regard the creation of such schools as a needless multiplication of parallel kinds of institutions. The sentiment against such so-called duplication is supported by the seemingly conclusive evidence of the experts who manage industrial schools, which is to the effect that it is difficult to differentiate between children who are committed as truants and those who are committed as delinquents. It is a recognized fact, however, that the specific act for which a child is committed is rarely the first offense. It is the culmination of a series of lawless manifestations. The specific act may be therefore, one of truancy or one of delinquency. The charge on which a child is sent to an institution is almost never a true index to the character of the child. Nevertheless it seems essential, as long as a given commonwealth must maintain several institutions for juvenile offenders, that each kind of institution should be kept to its distinctive purpose. In practice these schools frequently overlap and are confused in the public mind. In some states in which there is no distinct provision for truant schools, one of the public schools in a community is designated to receive, by transfer from all others, the truant and troublesome children. The school thus set apart is usually governed by a stern disciplinarian who is, theoretically, so severe as to make truancy from

school less frequent. When this course of treatment does not effect a cure, the disciplinary school may transfer the intractable to a juvenile reformatory, on the charge of disobedience or incorrigibility.

Perhaps no movement in recent years has gained greater impetus than that resulting in the establishment of juvenile courts and the probation system. In cities of more than one hundred thousand inhabitants, it has been found practicable to assign children's cases to judges who may divest themselves of much of the repulsive paraphernalia of the police court, and who may learn to give to the cases of the children that careful study and patient consideration which they require. In the larger cities such courts are independent of all others. The wisdom of this reform has been proclaimed in all our great cities.

In former years a boy was branded by the police court and corrupted while awaiting trial. He saw too much and was seen too much. Now he is not sent to prison, is not degraded and never disgraced by the environment, does not breathe the tainted atmosphere. He is entirely dissociated from the contamination of adult offenders. He has a fair trial by a sympathetic court. All the facts of his life may be considered. He is given a new sensation, a new vision. Frequently when children are kindly admonished and paroled in the custody of parents or teachers, or put on honor, they will forever escape the reformatory institutions. The juvenile court laws of the leading cities seem to have been of common origin. The typical law is the result of experiment and evolution. Amendments are still being urged, and it may be that in the coming year we shall attain more nearly to perfection. It would seem the part of wisdom to proceed cautiously with some changes that have been advocated. For example, it would be inexpedient to attempt, by legislative enactment, to compel the public press to suppress reports of children's court cases. It is true that at times it is unwise to preserve the bad record of a thoughtless child. The mistakes that might otherwise be of service to boys — "the stepping stones of our dead selves" — are made positive barriers through the action of the press; and with hardened boys, such records are a source of pride, making the wrong type of heroes.

However, the remedy does not lie in legislation, for a general law would exclude all cases and result in a revival of some of the objectionable methods of the star-chamber. The experience with star-chamber proceedings and a closed parliament proved that the public interests were not well subserved thereby. A wiser remedy would be the harmonious co-operation of the editors, as a result of an appeal to their patriotism and sense of justice.

Nor is it well established that it would be altogether wise to have the uniformed officers superseded by "plain clothes men," as proposed. One of the most humane and progressive of our authorities on juvenile courts is of the opinion that a policeman can keep order among the parents and public generally more easily than a civilian could, and that "the policeman who stands beside the witness chair should be retained, as he is frequently used to point a moral when juvenile offenders are being warned. He is often requested to look at the young offenders narrowly in case they are brought back to the court again. All this is very impressive to the youngsters. The officer should, of course, be intelligent and of a very kindly disposition. The work of calling the children from the bench could be as well performed by a civilian; nevertheless, I see no reason why a carefully selected policeman should not do somewhat better than a civilian. We are careful in the Children's Court to explain to the smallest offender, to the boy who throws stones, that the policeman represents the law and it is the duty of every boy to support the law, and consequently to respect the authority of a policeman."

A third change that has been advocated in the practice of the juvenile court is that all girls should be at all times in charge of female attendants. It is believed that policeman should not, under any circumstances, have anything to do with the girls. Undoubtedly strong popular pressure should be directed against the prevailing practice. The girls should be kept in a room reserved for them under the care of a matron, and should be escorted by a woman, not merely to and from the court-room, but in the court-room, to the judge's desk and back. This woman should be kind-hearted and sensible, and yet a disciplin-

arian. Sometimes the scenes in court, with young girls, are very distressing, and judgment, as well as kindness, is necessary.

Two months ago a Juvenile Offenders' Court was instituted in Birmingham, England, and Sir Howard Vincent has introduced in Parliament, the Summary Jurisdiction Bill, the object of which is to legalize the children's court system. Speaking of this bill, the author says "it was bred in America, that home of new and enlightened ideas."

While the sentiment in support of child-labor regulations, compulsory education laws, and juvenile courts has been contagious, spreading as a fire sweeps the prairies, there has been listless inactivity in the removal of destitute children from the depressing influences of the almshouses. One bit of distinctive work undertaken this year by your committee was to attempt to ascertain the number of normal and defective children in all poorhouses in the country. The effort failed. Many states did not reply; others replied that the data was not at hand. Eight states reported the same number, in proportion to the population, that was shown by the census of 1890. It has been four years since Mr. Homer Folks wrote: "The delays in the removal of children from almshouses is a lamentable illustration of the slowness with which such reforms proceed. Thirty-five years have passed since Ohio enacted the first law in the United States looking toward the removal of all children from almshouses, but as yet, barely a dozen states — about one-fourth of the whole number — have followed her example, and even in these states the laws are not, in all cases, fully enforced." Your committee estimates the number of such children at 14,000, basing the computation on the meager returns received and on the last authentic statistics, so that if the child-labor movement may be described as an irresistible force, the children in almshouses may be said to constitute an immovable body.

It is a hopeful sign in this connection, that all normal children have been removed from infirmaries for adults of Kentucky, and that no child, except an imbecile, or a defective, is permitted to remain in such places in that State longer than twenty-four hours. In Ohio, the returns show an average of two children in every 100,000 and half of these are reported as idiotic or hope-

lessly crippled. Illinois has reduced the number from eight in each one hundred thousand to two; and Indiana has reduced the number since 1890 from 432 children, to 23 children, so that to-day the average in the poor asylums in that State is nine-tenths of one child in each 100,000. The Census Bureau at Washington has been asked to make this a subject of special inquiry and report, and it is a pleasure to announce that a high official in that department gives assurances that it will be done this year.

The search for the best in children's institutions, has been continued the past year without diminution of effort. We may not have found the ideal, but our institutions of yesterday are crude and cold when compared with our models of to-day. The newer schools have put all the older schools of America and Europe under contribution. In order to breed out the congenial or acquired criminality of the boys, we must first breed out the inherent prison traits of the institutions. The last vestige of the jail disappears when the congregate type, which relies on walls to reduce the "human factor" to the minimum, gives way to the cottage-home type. The segregate type is no longer a splendid novelty. Broad acres have replaced high walls. The country is full of material beautifully adapted to interest and uplift. Nature supplies æsthetic surroundings. "There is an ampler air and all the air is balm." The moderness of the style and spirit of the new institutions is striking. New elements have entered. There is an effort at ethical culture. Sloyd, instructive and constructive manual training, intensive farming, floriculture, printing and engraving are taught. Often these are not permanently pursued by the pupils, but good results are gained indirectly — the by-products of every day life — as modern schools teach the essentials as by-products of civics and history.

The careful sifting process in the juvenile court and the work of the probation officer keep from institutions the harmless, pliable element which readily responded and was most easily controlled. The percentage of cures in the future will be less than was customarily reported and the problem of control will be more difficult. It will result, however, in a distinct benefit to a deserving class. Some schools have been made to yield up special prerogatives that will also seriously affect the discipline. The

advantage to the children is not apparent and a counterpoise has not been proposed. It would seem a good time to ponder well the advice of Ruskin:

> "Make your educational laws strict, and your criminal ones may be gentle; but leave youth its liberty, and you will have to dig dungeons for age."

We tax the skill of the architect and of the expert in building model schools. Let us reflect that this is not the final step in the march of progress. The complete building is not the end, but the means to an end. The difference between the ideal power of a school and its real power is the difference between a superior staff and an unfit staff. The personnel is the measure of merit. When indifference or incapacity or inertia or ignorance dominate, the results are disappointing. The children who are learned in the crude knowledge of the street come to us with life's unfoldings. We must turn the friendly side of our nature to them. Wholesome food, habits of regularity, trades instruction and physical culture are all good, but in order that a symmetrical man may be developed, the soul must be nourished. To be kept from evil is a negative influence. It is a palliative. There will probably not be a permanent cure unless there are positive moral influences. We must feel a real friendship for those who are making the long unequal fight. Our larger usefulness and helpfulness is expressed by example and comes with personal influence and companionship. Perhaps we shall extend the benign benefits of our institutions when we attract to them the men who have the essential equipment for companionship and natural leadership and inspiration and courage and joyfulness. Two cardinal facts lie at the base of the children's institutions; they owe to the child what has been missing from normal childhood; they owe to society the duty of preparing the child for the highest use to which he may be put. The proper performance of this responsibility depends upon the devotion and adaptive skill of the staff. It depends on the unselfish, warm, personal love that we feel for the children. We may vary the architecture and introduce new studies; but we cannot come to our work from a higher ground than this. Emerson tells us that

if the man who goes into the warehouse to buy a new article of cloth or carpet will go to the factory, "he shall find his new stuff still repeats the scrolls and rosettes which are found on the interior walls of the pyramids of Thebes." No matter what the variation in the type or pattern of our institutions, we can trace all successful result to LOVE. LOVE older than the pyramids, remains the source, the mainspring, of our greatest good.

The Committee will present to the Conference a programme that will deal exhaustively with these important matters and invites a thorough-going discussion of all papers, for the benefit of the states of the far West and for mutual profit; and, also, a discussion of the supervision of children discharged from institutions; the best methods for the placing out of neglected children; the visitation of such children; boarding out; apprenticing; the legal relations of parents to abandoned children; the difficulties of guardianship of half-orphans who have been placed through institutions; summer play-centres; the use of school property by boys' clubs; evening recreation classes in crowded neighborhoods; social meetings in churches at which the well-to-do can sympathize with and help the poor, without patronizing them; homelike institutions for poor working boys; and all agencies, less important, but not unimportant, that are safeguarding the interests of those children who should ever excite our sympathy and enlist our interest.

THE JUVENILE REFORMATORY OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY.

BY HASTINGS H. HART, LL. D.

Superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society.

The Juvenile Reformatory of the twentieth century represents a radical departure from the penological methods which prevailed seventy-five years ago. While the New York House of Refuge on Randall's Island was the first Juvenile Reformatory established in this country, the real evolution of the Juvenile Reformatory did not take definite form until the Ohio State

Reform School, now the Ohio State Industrial School for Boys, broke away from the prison like buildings and the prison discipline which long prevailed in the early institutions of this class.

The Juvenile Reformatories were at first, in reality, juvenile prisons, with prison bars, prison cells, prison garb, prison labor, prison sentences for fixed terms, prison punishments and prison discipline generally. It was recognized as a legitimate part of the purpose of the institution to inflict upon the child punishment for his wrong doing, adjusted according to the supposed ill desert of the culprit, and this idea was considered not to be inconsistent with the effort at reformation.

THE NEW REFORMATORY.

The Juvenile Reformatory of the twentieth century is organized on essentially different principles. It abandons entirely the prison method and the idea of retributive punishment. Its design is to create and establish right character in delinquent children, when all other agencies have failed. For many years the friends of the Juvenile Reformatory regarded it as the one and only method for dealing with incorrigible children, but with the advent of the Juvenile Court law, with the probation system and with the recognition of the family home as the most practical and efficient reformatory in the world, the Juvenile Reformatory has taken a new place in the minds of those who are interested in children. It is no longer the instrument of first aid to erring children, but it is now recognized as the dernier resort. When we have exhausted the resources of the home, the church, the public school, the private school, the Parental School, the Juvenile Court, the probation officer, then we turn to the Juvenile Reformatory and ask of it success in dealing with the problem in whose solution all other agencies have failed.

This view of the Juvenile Reformatory at once elevates and depresses it. On the one hand it is appealed to as an agency which is to accomplish work which no other agency can perform; on the other hand, the most amenable and reformable children are now dealt with through the probation system, without commitment to an institution. As a consequence the children who are sent to the institution are of a more difficult class than for-

merly and must of necessity tax more severely the wisdom, patience and resources of those to whose charge they are committed. It is probable that the practice of claiming that 90 per cent. of the children who are cared for turn out well will go out of fashion and that we shall have to be well pleased if 70 per cent. or 75 per cent. become useful and honorable members of society.

NOT TO BRING UP CHILDREN.

The Juvenile Reformatory is not designed as a permanent institution in which to bring up children to manhood and womanhood. However good an institution may be, however kindly its spirit, however genial its atmosphere, homelike its cottages, however fatherly and motherly its officers, however admirable its training, it is now generally agreed among those who are familiar with the needs of children of this class, that institutional life is at the best artificial and unnatural and that the child ought to be returned at the earliest practical moment to the more natural environment of the family home — his own home if it is a suitable one and if not then some other family home. This idea has found admirable expression in the twenty-first section of the Illinois Juvenile Court law, which reads as follows:

"This act shall be liberally construed to the end that its purpose may be carried out, to-wit: That the care, custody and discipline of a child shall approximate as nearly as may be that which would be given by its parents, and in all cases where it can be properly done, the child shall be placed in an approved family home and become one of the family by legal adoption or otherwise."

The same idea is expressed in section seventeen of the Act creating the Illinois Home for Delinquent Boys, which reads as follows:

"The Board of Trustees shall also make regulations for the placing in homes and placing in employment, or returning to his own home if suitable, of such inmate of such Home as may safely and consistently with the public good, be so placed out or returned to his own home; it being the intention of this Act that no boy shall be kept in such Home who can properly

be placed out or returned home longer than may be reasonably necessary to prepare him for such placing out."

Whenever the officers of the institution are convinced that the child has acquired such character that he can go at large with reasonable safety to himself and to the community, the sooner he goes out, the better for all concerned.

THE SPIRIT AND METHOD OF THE JUVENILE REFORMATORY.

Having considered the design of the Juvenile Reformatory, we come next to its spirit. In order that the design may be accomplished, there must be enthusiastic and wholesouled devotion to that design. Every person connected with the institution from the President of the Board of Trustees and the superintendent to the cook and the stable man should be inspired with the one purpose of developing the highest character which their young wards are capable of attaining. Every department should be organized with this purpose distinctly in view and neither expense nor labor should be spared which will clearly contribute to that end. Every activity of the pupils — study, work or play, should be directed intelligently and conscientiously toward the accomplishment of this purpose. Constant effort should be made to maintain such an environment and such a clean and wholesome atmosphere as shall contribute to high thinking and lofty purpose.

The methods by which this lofty design shall be furthered and by which this inspiring atmosphere shall be created will differ in detail in different institutions. Every true institution is a living organism, developing by inward vital principles, and every true institution has an individuality of its own, resulting from its peculiar evolution and from the personal equations of the men and women by whom it is fostered and administered, but there are certain general characteristics which prevail in all of the best institutions of this class, and which are recognized by common consent as essential features of genuine reformatory work. Wide differences of detail will be found in good institutions in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Minnesota, and Colorado, but

certain general principles will be found in most of them. First, there is an absence of prison features. To one who is not acquainted with such institutions, but who knows that they are places of detention for boys who have committed grave offenses and even high felony, it is something of a shock to approach an institution like the Minnesota State Training School or the St. Charles School for Boys in Illinois and to discover that there are no walls, no high fences, no barred windows, no cells; that the grounds are open to all comers, that the cottages are built like ordinary dwelling houses; that boys are sent freely to all parts of a large farm, or are sent on errands to a distant village or city; that the inmates live in families under the care of a house father and house mother and that boys of all ages attend school under the charge of women teachers who control them with as little effort as the pupils in an ordinary public school. Many Juvenile Reformatories have one or more strong rooms, where a refractory boy may be given opportunity for quiet reflection on the error of his ways, but I have known reformatories where there was no place whatever to lock a boy up, but where, nevertheless, good discipline was maintained.

Second, the model reformatory is marked by encouragement of self-control, and self-dependence. Many years ago a gentleman visited the Western House of Refuge, at Rochester, N. Y. The boys were drawn up in line for his inspection. As he walked along the line he noted the downcast visages and the averted eyes of the boys. Turning to the superintendent, he said: "Have you a boy in all that company that you would trust to go to Rochester on an errand and return unaccompanied?" The superintendent thought a moment, and replied: "No, I do not think I have." The writer will never forget the sensation experienced many years ago in visiting a large institution for delinquent boys in New York City, and hearing a keeper say to a careless boy who was out of line: "Here, you Forty-Seven Hundred and Forty-Nine! What are you doing there?" There was among these boys a hopeless, forlorn and dogged aspect, which is visible upon the countenances of many adult prisoners, but which has no place on the face of a young boy, however far he may have gone astray.

EDUCATIONAL METHODS.

Education in the Juvenile Reformatory must be religious, intellectual and physical. However strong may be our convictions regarding religious liberty and separation between church and state, we must agree that wise religious instruction is a powerful agency for the creation of character. Some have held that all that is necessary is to create right habits of thought and action in order that the child may go right hereafter. Even if this be true, which may be fairly questioned, religious training is essential in order to the establishment of right habits.

RELIGIOUS TRAINING.

The religious training of the children must be directed, and its general methods regulated, by the authorities of the institution. The practice of allowing every zealous clergyman, every representative of the Young Men's Christian Association or a Christian Endeavor Society, or a Woman's Christian Temperance Union, to administer religious instruction to the children, as they may see fit, is not only a wrong educational method, but it is a wrong religious method. However good their intentions, and however correct their teaching, they necessarily lack the experience and the knowledge of the needs of the children which is essential to the accomplishment of the best results. Continuity of effort and scientific method is just as essential in the religious training of the child as in his intellectual and physical training. It would be as reasonable to try to carry on the day school of the institution by means of a succession of visiting teachers, trained and untrained, as to carry on the religious training by the same method.

Religious instruction should be given to the children by religious teachers, chosen and authorized by the superintendent and trustees. They should be chosen with special reference to their piety, wisdom, sympathy and aptness in dealing with children. They should be required to take special training for this difficult and important work. In most states it is required by law that religious instructors shall be so chosen as to give opportunity for training children in the religious faith of their parents. At least one religious instructor should give the whole of his time to

the school. In small institutions a portion of his time might be given to the work of a state agent, finding homes and supervising children after their dismissal from the school. The Roman Catholic instructor should be required to devote at least one day of the week to his young charges.

The work of the religious instructor should be not simply that of doctrinal teaching; he should have blood in his veins and be capable of entering sympathetically into the life of the child, winning his confidence and becoming his personal friend and counselor.

INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.

The intellectual training should be of the highest quality. The majority of the children will be found backward in their studies; many of them dull and more disinclined to study. Teachers should be selected with reference to their special aptitude in stimulating such pupils to an interest in study. The Chicago Parental School is carried on by the Board of Education. It is a school for truants and unruly boys. Out of the army of public school teachers in the city the brightest and most successful teachers have been selected for this service. High salaries are paid, and the results have been most encouraging.

The teachers should be men and women of originality, versatility, tact, patience and strong belief in the possibilities of human nature. No teacher should be tolerated who does not believe in the future of the children. Pessimism is an inconquerable bar to success. Those teachers succeed best who become inspired with love for their pupils, stimulating to unfailing endeavor in their behalf.

Women have the advantage over men for the reason that there is in the heart of every boy an instinct of chivalry which can be successfully appealed to. Superintendent Ray, who was for many years at the head of the New Hampshire Reformatory, once said, "When I want to send a boy to the city of Manchester on an errand, I invariably make the arrangement through one of the ladies of the school. It is an unheard of thing for a boy to run away after promising a lady to return." While the teachers in reformatories are at a disadvantage in the material with which they have to do and in the previous habits of inattention and irreg-

ularity, they have some compensating advantage. The children are never tardy, they never play truant, they never run the streets at night, and the teachers do not have to contend against a lack of wholesome discipline at home. Moreover, the children are spurred to application by the most powerful human motive, namely, the hope of freedom; and however kindly the discipline, however large the liberty enjoyed, however homelike and genial the cottage life may be, nine-tenths of the children look forward eagerly to the time of their release, and most of them are willing to exert themselves to gain it.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Industrial training must be organized strictly with a view to its value as a means of producing character. This will eliminate productive industries, except in the agricultural department. Experience proves that if young boys and girls are to be used in productive manufactures successfully, their training must be specialized and they must be kept doing one thing at a high speed. This is hopelessly inconsistent with the effort to create character. Incessant, monotonous toil does not develop independence, hopefulness or love of industry. It produces a bodily weariness which hinders education in other lines. It will eliminate what is sometimes called "busy work" for little boys, such as cane-seating, stocking machines and brush making, for the same reason.

The teaching of domestic science efficiently, as it is done in institutions like the Connecticut Industrial School for Girls and the Illinois Training School for Girls, or by such methods as are practiced in the Foulke and Long Institute for Dependent Girls in Philadelphia, is thoroughly and eminently practical. The difference is that the domestic training of girls qualifies them to enter and hold their places in family homes, the very thing which is most desirable for children of this class, while the training of boys in mechanical trades does not fit them for family life.

The training of boys in agriculture has a similar advantage to the training of girls in domestic science, because it fits the boy for farm life, which is a wholesome and happy life; but it must be remembered that the great majority of boys in Juvenile Reformatories are too young and too backward to take advanced courses

in agricultural training, and that the simple and primary training which they are capable of receiving can be acquired quite as well on the farm as in the institution. If the boy has acquired a reliable character the farmer can train him. It must be remembered also that only a minority of the boys in Juvenile Reformatories can be adapted to the life of the farm. The majority of these boys come from the cities and villages. They have the town fever in their veins, and it is practically impossible to keep them on farms. Home-sickness and distaste for farm labor attack many of them, and they drift back sooner or later to city life. Any organization of industrial training which refuses to take account of this obvious fact in human nature and attempts to force the entire population of the institution on to the land is a mistake. It is true that many city boys take kindly to farming and remain permanently in the country; it is true also that many country boys crave the town life.

In order to meet the diverse needs of the pupils it is necessary to diversify the industrial training. There must be Sloyd, nature study, flower gardens, weeding, kite making, etc., for the little fellows. There must be farm labor, chicken raising, brick making, road making, stock raising, dairying, horticulture, manual training shops in carpentry, painting, blacksmithing, bricklaying, etc., for the older lads — all of these employed primarily and constantly for the great aim and purpose of the institution, character building.

Incidentally, there will be valuable crops, and animals, and roads, and sidewalks and brick buildings produced, but that is not what industrial training will be organized for. Incidentally, the farm boys will learn to make a gate or a wagon tongue or a hot bed, to cobble a shoe or nail on a horseshoe, but that is not the final purpose of the training.

Industrial training will tend to create character by developing the steady hand, the true eye, working to a plan, obeying orders, conscientious fulfilment of design, steadfast application to a task, delight in a perfect and finished job, respect for a master who knows how to plan and to produce results; taste for industrial labor, and discovery of one's peculiar aptitude.

THE "PLANT" OF THE JUVENILE REFORMATORY.

A large farm of not less than 300 acres of fertile land, adapted for general agriculture, gardens, orchards and small fruit, is essential. The farm should be conveniently near a good-sized town of perhaps 2,000 to 5,000 people (say not more than two miles distant). This is necessary in order to give employes a reasonable opportunity for church going, recreation, shopping, etc. It is very difficult to hold good employes on a farm four or five miles from town. It is necessary, also, in order to facilitate the necessary visits of trustees, parents and others who have business with the institution.

The farm should be contiguous to the main line of a railroad, in order to allow a convenient side-track for the delivery of building material and supplies. It should be so situated as to insure an abundant supply of good water and good drainage.

BUILDINGS.

The buildings should be of a substantial and enduring character, planned by a competent architect under the close supervision of an experienced superintendent and a watchful Board of Trustees. The aim should be to secure adequate and convenient space at a minimum cost.

A Juvenile Reformatory should be planned for a maximum of 500 boys or girls, for the reason that the number should not go beyond what can be kept within the personal knowledge and acquaintance of a single superintendent.

It is now generally agreed that the "cottage plan" has great advantages over the congregate plan and most of the newer institutions are built on that plan: for example, those at Westboro, Massachusetts; Middletown, Connecticut; Glen Mills, and Morganza, Pennsylvania; Red Wing, Minnesota; Golden, Colorado, and St. Charles, Illinois. An ingenious escape from the evils of the congregate plan is the plan of families in flats, followed by the Girls' Training School, at Geneva, Illinois. Each flat forms an independent family which does its own cooking, baking, washing, dressmaking and mending. This plan affords some special facilities for the training of girls for domestic life in the modern city, to which many of them ultimately turn.

COST OF PLANT.

Institutions on the cottage plan have been built at a cost of all the way from $500 to $2,000 a bed. It is necessary to avoid false economy on the one hand and extravagance on the other. A cheaply built institution with inferior architecture, poor bricks, unseasoned lumber, bad workmanship and cheap plumbing soon wears out and creates extravagant expenses for repairs. On the other hand, ornate and pretentious buildings with wide corridors, spacious guest chambers and excessive room for employes, increase unnecessarily the expense of heating, cleaning, etc., use up funds which ought to be expended in providing for children, and still worse, create a prejudice against the institution in the minds of the people, and as a result the legislature becomes niggardly in its appropriations and the proper development of the institution is delayed.

An adequate plant for a Juvenile Reformatory can be built and equipped for from $600 to $1,000 per bed, including land. Some very good institutions have cost complete about $800 per bed.

This amount may be roughly distributed as follows:

Land	$100
Cottages	350
School House	100
Shop and gymnasium	65
Chapel	45
Domestic buildings	50
Farm buildings	40
Heating, lighting, plumbing and sewers	50
Total	$800

That this is a reasonable estimate will be apparent on comparison with the value of an ordinary family home. We have allowed for dwelling house, land, kitchen, laundry, etc., heating, lighting, plumbing, etc., $550 per bed. This would allow for a dwelling house, to accommodate six persons, at $550 per bed, $3,300. This sum will build a comfortable dwelling house and purchase a suitable lot in the suburbs of any city. We have allowed for one acre of ground for each inmate, at $100 per

acre. We have allowed for school house, chapel, shops and gymnasium, composing the educational plant, $200 per inmate. This would be at the rate of $50,000 for a school house for 500 children; $25,000 for a church of 500 sittings and $32,500 for shops for manual training. The latter sum may seem inadequate, but it must be remembered that many children will be too small for shop training and that those who take manual training will work in sections, so that each shop can serve the needs of three to four sets of boys each day. An acre of ground for each inmate is as much ground as can be profitably worked in connection with an institution. Intensive farming, gardening, horticulture and floriculture give the most valuable training and require only a limited acreage. The greater part of the land will be used to raise corn, oats and roots, for the live stock of the institution.

Cottages should be planned with the utmost care. They should be built for not exceeding 30 children each. They should contain about 45 feet of dormitory space for each inmate; about 30 square feet of day room space; about 10 square feet of bath room and storage space and if dining rooms are provided they should contain about 15 square feet of space for each inmate. Provision should be made for two employes in each cottage (preferably husband and wife). They should have for sitting room, bed room, bath and storage about 400 square feet of space. The basement should contain playrooms for stormy weather with lockers for boys' private belongings.

The total floor space for the first and second floors would be as follows: Dormitories 1,400 feet, day room 900 feet, baths and storage 300 feet, employes 400 feet, total 3,000 feet. This would mean a building about 40 feet square.

Excellent examples of such cottages will be found at the Illinois Industrial Training School Farm, at Glenwood, Illinois, built within the past two years at a cost of $10,000 each.

The school building of a reformatory should pattern after the best ward schools in cities and will cost about the same.

The shop buildings need not be expensive structures. They can be built one or two stories high and all heavy machinery can be located on the first floor, resting on the ground and

obviating the necessity for heavy construction. A separate chapel is desirable in order to cultivate the spirit of reverence and to afford suitable accommodations for religious services.

A well equipped gymnasium is desirable as a means to physical culture. The gymnasium need not be large because it can be used by the boys in sections.

The domestic buildings, heating, lighting and power plant, laundry, kitchen, general dining rooms, refrigerator, store house, fire department, etc., should be so located as to allow for economical returns from the steam plant and at the same time proper subordination to the remainder of the institution. The steam plant should be adequate and the house should be large. Inadequacy leads to expensive repairs and wasteful forcing of the plant, wearing out of boilers and expensive rebuilding.

Whichever plan may be adopted, it is vitally important to secure the purpose of the institution that the officers shall be in full force at meal times, instructing the children in table manners and inspiring an air of cheerfulness and homelikeness to the daily meals. The use of linen table cloths, napkins and attractive tableware will contribute to this end. It is an excellent plan, if practicable, to have an institution officer seated at each table. These officers should take their meals at a different time from the pupils' meal hours.

The farm buildings should be planned with as much thought and care as the other buildings. They should be attractive in appearance, not on account of incongruous decorations of the gingerbread order, but because of their proportions and their manifest adaptation to their purpose. They should be so constructed as to promote the utmost cleanliness and the healthfulness of the domestic animals kept in them, and the same standard of order, neatness and cleanliness should prevail in them as in other departments of the institution. The agricultural work of of institution generally should be of the very best, not only for the credit of the institution, but, chiefly for the educational effect upon the pupils. The boy who comes to love cleanliness, neatness and order and at the same time cultivates a spirit of kindness and love to animals, has laid a considerable foundation

for right character; and the benefit which comes to the shop boy from exactness, precision and thoroughness will come to the farm boy in the perfect care of the horses, cows, calves and pigs and in the absolute and constant cleanliness of their surroundings. If the farm boy is allowed to go dirty and ragged, if the pig pen is foul and the horse stable has a rotten floor, if the garden is weedy and the corn is half tended, if the farm tools are left covered with mud and the farm machinery lies out in the weather, the boy will be left with low ideals and a great opportunity for character building will be lost.

AFTER-CARE — THE STATE AGENCY.

The laws establishing Juvenile Reformatories in most states provide that the children shall continue to be wards of the institution, during their minority. This implies that the child shall continue under the watchcare of the institution after his dismissal. The best Juvenile Reformatories now recognize the after-care of the child as a duty equally important with his care in the institution. New Jersey, Illinois, Minnesota, Massachusetts, and other states maintain state agents for the express purpose of performing this duty. The agent becomes acquainted with the child and gains his confidence before dismissal, and investigates the child's own home, if he has one, to ascertain whether it is a suitable place for him. If the child has no suitable home of his own, the agent finds a family home and takes the child thereto in order to initiate him in his new surroundings. The agent maintains correspondence with the child and receives reports from the parents or foster parents. If the home proves at any time to be unfit or if the child gets into trouble, the agent returns him to the institution for further treatment or for replacement. The relation between the agent and the child is one of confidential friendship.

In Minnesota and Iowa the place of state agent for both boys and girls is filled by a woman, and experience has shown that the instinct of chivalry which resides in the bosom of every normal boy becomes a helpful aid to the performance of their work.

THE AGENTS OF THE WORK.

The head of the institutions of the state is the Governor, who appoints the Boards of Directors. In some states it has been the custom for the Governor to dictate to the Board of Directors the appointment of the superintendent and, sometimes the subordinate officers; these positions being regarded as political spoils. There can be no question as to the injurious effect of this practice. The Governor should choose the Board of Directors, not for the partisan usefulness of its members, but with reference solely to their competence and efficiency. Having thus selected them, he should leave them to perform their duties without interference, and he can then hold them responsible for the results.

The Directors should be men of practical experience in affairs. The Board should include a lawyer of high rank, at least one business man, of experience in large affairs and at least one man of special experience in the organization and management of public institutions. All the members should be men of intelligence, courage, independence and sufficient leisure to enable them to devote at least one day of each month to the institution with additional time for work on special committees. All of the Directors should visit other institutions of the same class and should attend annual conventions where they may meet officers and directors of other states. An unpaid Board is preferable in order to eliminate professional office seekers. A per diem of $5 per day is no inducement to men of the class needed on such a Board.

The most important duty of the Board of Directors is the selection of the superintendent. They should select him just as they would select a head for any other educational institution; namely, by taking the best man wherever they can find him, at home or abroad, and disregarding all applications of place hunters. Having found the best man attainable, they should give him large powers and hold him to a strict responsibility. The Board should not interfere in minor details but should keep themselves thoroughly and intimately informed as to the operations of the superintendent and his subordinates. They should delegate to the superintendent the duty of nomin-

ating all subordinate employes, subject to their confirmation and should give him authority to dismiss subordinates at his discretion. The superintendent should hold office at the pleasure of the Board of Directors, without term. Boards of Directors should take an active and efficient share in the preparation of building plans, the organization of new departments and changes in the general management of the institution.

The Board of Directors should be fully awake to the great purpose of the institution and should be earnestly and wisely in sympathy with it.

The superintendent of the Juvenile Reformatory should be a man or woman of extraordinary qualifications. No public institution demands more efficient or competent work. In selecting superintendents for insane hospitals, schools for feeble-minded children, schools for the deaf and the blind, the need of special training and superior ability is recognized, but many people seem to suppose that almost any good man of fair ability would do for a Reform School.

The superintendent must be a competent educator who can direct the operation of the schools, manual training, agricultural training, physical training. He must have sufficient knowledge of farming to manage a large farm economically. He must be a good business man for the management of the business affairs of the institution, purchase of supplies, planning and supervision of buildings, etc. He must be a man of administrative capacity, capable of directing efficiently the work of a large corps of diverse employes. He should be a man of culture and education, because only a well-educated man can unite all of the other qualifications. He should be a man of religious spirit. He may be a Protestant or a Roman Catholic or a Jew, but he must be a reverent man, imbued with the spirit of love to God and to his fellow man, and a man of such catholicity as will enable him to rise above sectarian narrowness and to treat with due consideration the people of diverse faiths with whom he may come in contact.

Above all, the superintendent should have that fine spirit of sympathy with young life, insight and stimulating power which has marked the great school masters of the world, like

Arnold of Rugby, Taylor of Andover and Lane of Chicago. He must be able to discover the secret springs in a boy's character, to appeal to unsuspected motives, to arouse dormant powers of resistance to temptation, to labor with unflagging zeal and unlimited patience for the accomplishment of the seemingly impossible task, to meet every new boy with as much freshness, hopefulness and courage as if he had never known an incorrigible.

The superintendency of a Juvenile Reformatory is no place for a broken-down schoolmaster or a clergyman "without charge," or a crank chock full of theories which he wishes to work out upon the children, or a well-intentioned citizen who has failed in business; least of all, for a useful politician waiting to be rewarded. The men who unite the qualifications already described are few and much wanted. They are apt to be modest men, under-rating themselves and not knowing their own powers awaiting the discovery of some discriminating director, who knows how to find a man.

The teachers of the institution, religious teachers, day school teachers and industrial teachers, should be men and women (the majority women) who are enthusiastically devoted to the effort to bring out the very best possiblities of their pupils. Indifferent, perfunctory teachers, working only for their salaries, should be dispensed with as soon as their disposition is discovered. The work will be accomplished quite as much by the personality of the teachers as by their direct instructions. There are many splendid examples of such teachers in our Juvenile Reformatories. When one realizes the difficult and intractable material with which they have to deal — boys and girls who have been given over by former teachers as incorrigibly vicious, unmanageable, or hopelessly dull, we can but wonder at the fine enthusiasm and the remarkable success with which some of these teachers work. In order that they may do their best work, it is desirable that they shall live outside the institution and shall be relieved of responsibility for their pupils, out of school hours. Freshness and vigor are essential to their success.

The matrons, "cottage managers," "house fathers" and "house mothers," yard officers, farmer, farm employes, kitchen employes, laundry employes, etc., who have charge of children out

of school hours, should be people of like character with the teachers. They should be conscientious, earnest, alert, enthusiastic. They should use the English language correctly; they should refrain from slang and other improprieties of language, they should be polite and courteous in their manners, quiet in their tones. The truth is that there is no place in a Juvenile Reformatory for people of doubtful character, coarse, ignorant or illbred. The training and development of character in the child should go on continually. It is folly to counteract in the field the good training which the boy has received in the school room, or to have the employe in the kitchen inculcate by his example the vices of speech or conduct against which the boy has been warned by the cottage manager. If the use of tobacco is forbidden to the pupil it should not be permitted on the premises by the officers. It is not an edifying spectacle to see a yard officer seated on a bench with a pipe in his mouth, watching narrowly to see that tobacco is not smuggled to the boys by outsiders.

Next to the superintendent, the most important officer in the institution is the state agent, who is in charge of the after care of the pupils. It is an astonishing oversight that many states still neglect to provide for this indispensable work. In Massachusetts and New Jersey the vital importance of the state agency has long been recognized. In Minnesota and Iowa this difficult and important work is successfully performed by women. When the Minnesota legislature established a state agency, in 1897, there were several able-bodied applicants for the position. To the surprise of the community, the Board of Managers selected for the position Miss Grace Johnston, a slender, quiet and womanly woman. Miss Johnston had practical knowledge of street children through work for the newsboys in St. Paul, among whom she was widely known and much admired. She began by getting acquainted with the boys and girls in the school. As the term for their dismissal approached she visited their homes to ascertain whether they were suitable places, if the home was passably good, the child was returned to his own home; if not, a place was found in some other family home. After dismissal, Miss Johnston kept in touch with her wards by fre-

quent correspondence. If a ward got into trouble, an immediate visit followed. If a boy violated the conditions of his parole, she conducted him to the school. It was a matter of astonishment to sheriffs and policemen to see this slender and ladylike woman take charge of young men of 16 to 20 years of age who had broken their parole and perhaps committed some serious offense against the law, and take them long distances by rail, without physical restraint, solely by the power of her personal influence and her slender womanhood.

The old method was to build a boy up by long and patient effort in the institution, and then send him back, without watchcare, to the very environment which had brought him to the delinquent condition. The new method is, by friendly and faithful watchcare, to nourish and strengthen the good character which has been started in the institution, protecting him as far as possible from adverse and degrading influences and returning him to the shelter of an institution if his new purposes prove too weak to stand the strain of outside temptation.

As an economical measure the state agency is of the utmost value, because it enables the director to dismiss pupils with safety from three months to six months sooner than would otherwise be justifiable, saving to the state, in cash, several times the cost of the department, but the saving of money is the smallest advantage of the work.

It has been the aim of this paper to present the subject in a strictly practical manner. If the ideals herein presented should seem to be visionary and impracticable, I believe that a careful study of the actual workings of an institution of this class will remove that impression. The Juvenile Reformatories have accomplished much, against great difficulties. Their superintendents are an intensely practical and earnest body. They ought to have the earnest co-operation of every philanthropist in the effort to broaden and strengthen their work and to raise it to the highest possible standard of altruistic effort.

A PLEA FOR ESTHETIC SURROUNDINGS.

BY GEORGE VAUX, JR., PHILADELPHIA.

On this occasion and in this company any discussion of the relative influences of heredity and environment would be out of place. Probably most of us who are interested in work for and among children would feel that there is no longer there a moot point; that this question has been decided; that the preponderance of environment can be demonstrated with almost mathematical certainty; that any time spent re-arguing what is already settled is merely so much time wasted.

If this is our attitude on the principle involved, how shall that principle be applied to some of the points which touch us and touch those whom we are trying to help in our and in their everyday lives.

The object of this paper is to endeavor to call attention to the great importance of some matters, to which the American people unfortunately have become accustomed and which cannot but have a most degrading influence on us all. So unconscious are we of many aspects of our surroundings that we fail to give weight to them, and thus fail to employ agencies which might be continuous in their influence for good and in their tendency to uplift those whom we are striving to better.

Just how these influences act, and how far reaching may be their consequences, who may say! How frequently do we see men and women, of humble origin perhaps, with the most limited early opportunities, who take the highest rank in science, in art, in literature, in music, in business, in some one of the great realms of human interest or human progress? A look at the ancestry cannot explain it in many cases. It seems as though there is something inherent in the individual which has caused the growth and expansion of a master mind.

At a dinner some time back this subject was being considered. The host, himself a typical member of the class above referred to, was discussing a gentleman who in his profession is the peer of any living American. Withal, he is an art critic of the foremost rank, and his own collection of paintings is one of the finest on

the continent, each masterpiece showing the insight and judgment of its owner. This man is the son of a blacksmith, and had but the usual education accorded to such. Whence came the inspiration? Our host propounded the theory that it was the result of a profound impression produced on the infantile mind of the connoisseur and man of affairs with such force and vividness that its effect had never been wholly lost, and is now seen displaying itself in the man of sixty, through his keen judgment, marvellous taste and ability correctly to weigh the lasting value of a painting. And that profound impression on the mind of the child, produced perhaps when he was not three years old, had its origin in some picture he had seen; perhaps in a shop window, maybe in a magazine or newspaper, perchance only a circus poster.

The theory is an interesting one. How far it can be substantiated is a problem which may be far away in what is speculative. But it indicates the point to which I wish to draw attention. And that is there is excellent ground for believing that the small things, as they are usually viewed, with which we are surrounded, and especially with which children are surrounded, have a momentous influence on their whole lives and careers.

We declaim against the squalor and barrenness of child-life in the congested districts of our great cities. But do we use our influence to have public buildings and school houses and institutions of beautiful architectural proportions? As a rule it may be said, without much danger of serious dispute, that no object or building costs less solely because it is ugly. Or to put the converse, that beauty does not add to expense. Of course, I am not referring to what may be classed as mere ornamentation, but to the essentials. And to have lines well proportioned, and curves graceful and colors harmonious, does not make a building costly either in money or ultimate usefulness.

In school buildings and institutions for children, I would be very insistent on the importance of this consideration, and doubtless in many cases additional expense for a reasonable amount of ornamentation is entirely justifiable. But let such accord always with the very best taste, never be tawdry and never carried to an extreme.

I have in mind at the moment a certain group of buildings,

near one of our large eastern cities. The object of the institution is to train mechanics. Yet the youthful carpenter or bricklayer, thorough and excellent as his prescribed courses are, has always before him as an example of the taste and of the ideals of those who erected the buildings as homely and unattractive a style of architecture as could well be chosen. The lines are not good to begin with, and the introduction of brick bands in the stone cottages gives an effect of lack of motive and fixedness of purpose which cannot but have a most unfortunate influence on the hundreds of young men whose home this place is for several of the most impressionable years of their lives.

And the beautiful surrounding country is not able to counteract this influence. For juvenile institutions, at least, there has been recently a consensus of opinion almost if not quite unanimous in favor of country locations. How important plenty of room and fresh air and good water are we all admit. But not a little is their importance enhanced by beautiful environs such as our rural surroundings supply. Yet, in how many cases do we desecrate such by ill-proportioned buildings, ugly erections conceived by some ill-bred architect, who has no knowledge of style or technique and who imagines, if he designs something that will strike the eye, he has attained to a masterpiece; whereas, the lasting impression on the observer is that produced by a monstrosity. I would not condemn originality of design or treatment. But in the centuries that have elapsed since the days of the Egyptian and the Greek and the Roman architects human intellect has failed to evolve much that is worthy of repetition, at least in great buildings.

The interiors of many of our modern institutional buildings are no better than their exteriors, which many architects appear to design first and without any real consideration being given to the daily requirements of those who will have to use the structures afterward. And the necessity or importance of making them pleasing and attractive is not given more than a passing thought.

If a comparison is made of the beautiful but simple lines of some of the specimens of colonial architecture, which are so numerous in many of our localities in the east, with the constructions that were in vogue to within a very short time, the point will be evident to almost anyone. The wonder of it is that we as a

people have been so blind for so long; and that, having drifted away from something that had much to commend it both from the standpoint of style and of utility, it has taken so many generations for us to find our bearings and once more to crave and insist on having the true and the lasting, rather than the unreal and the faddish.

That the national conscience is being aroused to the importance of this subject is everywhere manifest. Even the Congress of the United States has been affected by the growing popular sentiment, as bears witness the recent action of appointing a commission to devise a comprehensive plan for the development and beautifying of the national capital.

But when the architects and the builders have done their best — or their worst — how do we who come after them as occupants do our part? Do our boards of managers, and superintendents, and teachers, and other officers attain to a high ideal in supplying carpets and furniture and fixtures and pictures and the hundred and one things which go to make up the equipment of a modern institution? And do we live up to the highest plane of good taste, and beauty and simplicity? Or, with us, will anything do? I am very much afraid too often the latter. Because a thing is low in price — not necessarily cheap — there is so often a temptation to buy it, and thus really waste money as well as get an inferior article in itself. But this generalization applies to almost everything that is consumed in an institution. If proof were necessary, I might cite a personal experience when, for an institution of about eleven hundred, molasses at sixteen cents actually cost in a year very appreciably less than another quality at nine cents, and yet everyone was better satisfied.

But I am a bit outside of my subject for the illustration.

In these days so much criticism of institutions has been rife that those of us who believe in them, but still are unbiased, may well look about to see what we can do to eliminate what can best be termed "institutionalism." Where large numbers of persons are congregated, necessarily matters are on a different scale from those places where there are but a few. But if our institutions, officers and managers, would give a little thought and attention to the beautifying of the surroundings of their wards they would

overcome much that is well founded in what is urged against them. In these days when excellent pictures can be secured for a mere song, do not have bare, cheerless walls; neither have them hung with dazzling chromos, or prints of low grade. Such cost too much in the long run. A good picture, by a great master (the reproduction need be only in half-tone), may readily prove an inspiration and a help for a lifetime.

In dress there is ample room for these ideas to be developed. And in fact it may be that here, with girls especially, there is an opportunity for teaching the very best lesson. A bit of color, or a dainty bow may count for so much in relieving the monotony and sameness of clothing. Possibly the truest criticism of many homes for children can be found in the way the inmates are dressed. Of course, cleanliness and neatness must be cardinal points. But when they have been attended to there is still left a great realm for the display of individual taste, which if properly guided may be an influence that will do much to uplift and elevate.

In the same way we might consider numerous other points which touch the every-day lives of all of us and which would well repay study and thought in their development. The idea to keep uppermost is the lasting effect and influence of even the smallest things. The curriculums of our schools and the courses of study and practice in our industrial work may all be modified to their improvement, if from time to time new and more refined methods are applied.

But do not misunderstand me. I would not omit any of the essentials in this effort. I well remember when, a few years ago, certain well disposed but unfortunately rather sentimental ladies were asked to make suggestions as to what could be done to improve the methods employed in the management of a reformatory for girls. Much interest was manifested in the subject, and a thorough investigation was made. As a result, just two suggestions were forthcoming, and one was that a course in water-color drawing be introduced, and this for girls most of whom would of necessity be bread-winners, who were largely illiterate, and many of whom had never cooked a meal or darned a stocking. With such impractical views I have no sympathy whatever.

My plea is not for them. It is, however, for higher ideas, for more elevated thoughts, for more beautiful surroundings.

THE EVILS OF INSTITUTIONAL CHILDHOOD.

BY WALTER LINDLEY, M. D., LL. D., LOS ANGELES, DEAN OF THE COLLEGE OF MEDICINE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA, PRESIDENT BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL.

There is something in the suffering, hardships and poverty of the small child that appeals forcibly to mankind.

This has ever been so, but Nerva, the Roman emperor, A. D. 67, was probably the first to aid the poor child systematically from the public funds. His great aim was to aid poor parents to care for their children. In other words, this benevolent ruler, wise in his day and generation, thought that to maintain the integrity of a private home was better than to proclaim the celebrity of a public institution. The coins of 67 represent Nerva sitting on his throne stretching out his right hand to a boy and girl. He also actively encouraged people of wealth to assist poor parents to clothe and educate their children.

There is an important lesson to be learned from this bit of history.

The best thing the state can do to help the children of our land is to foster the home and the home spirit.

There should be some systematic, organized effort by the state to assist poor widows who are left with children, to preserve the integrity of their homes by aiding them in securing some kind of employment at or near their homes, and by paying, if necessary, a cash allowance while the children are small. The great majority of children in our orphanages are half orphans. How often, oh how often, I have seen worthy managers trot out with pride the little tots from two to ten in "successful" institutions. These boards of managers are, as a rule, composed of generous and intelligent women, who are doing the best they can for those little ones under the existing laws. In my heart I cannot keep down the cry — "Oh! the pity of it all!" The

wholesale evensong, the wholesale prayer, the wholesale bath, the wholesale "Good morning," and the wholesale meal. It is true, there may be love in the management of that institution, but it is a wholesale love.

The public institution is a necessity, but it should be utilized as little as possible. Children from a public institution are like plants from a hot-house; unless carefully shielded they will be destroyed by the first adverse wind. It takes the individual home to develop in the child strength and individuality.

At the session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction of 1899, a report, drawn up by Hon. Thomas L. Mulry of New York, president of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, was presented, which took the ground that many children now in institutions "might well be placed in good homes, provided the families were of the same religious faith as the child," and that the earlier they are placed in such families the better it is for the child, as the motive which induces one to take a child of tender years is apt to be more disinterested than when they are old enough to be utilized as help. The report concludes: "There are homes in abundance throughout our cities, our towns, our farming sections, for every orphan child, if the people would but open their hearts and brighten their homes by studying in what way they may best show their love for their less fortunate fellow beings."

There are three methods of caring for children: The first and best is in the child's own home, the state aiding, if necessary, the parent or parents. Second, and second in efficiency, placing the child in a family home, the state paying from $1.50 to $2.50 per week where the family cannot afford to keep the child free. The third and dernier resort is the institution.

California and New York are the limit on the institution idea, while New Jersey, Massachusetts, Minnesota and Michigan are the noteworthy states in practicing the family home plan. In regard to especially fostering and preserving the home, there is no state that has yet reached the advanced ideas of that Roman emperor, 67 years after the beginning of the Christian Era.

The dependent children of New Jersey are under the care of the State Board of Children's Guardians. This board does

not maintain any orphanages, but each dependent child is placed in the care of some family within the state, and this family must be of the same religious faith as the child's parents. This probably means Catholic children with Catholic families, Jewish children with Jewish families, Protestant children with Protestant families, as the requirement doubtless does not extend to the numerous fine subdivisions for which we Protestants have become notorious. June 1, 1904, the New Jersey Board of Guardians had in their charge 531 children, of whom 350 were with families that were being paid for their board, while 181 were being kept free of charge. Taking the average total number of children thus in the care of the state, boarding and free, the per capita cost per annum of maintenance is $60.15. That is, the state of New Jersey, with a population of 2,000,000, is paying out per annum for her dependent children about $40,000. The children are visited by an agent at least four times a year; a monthly report is required from the child's school teacher, giving not only the educational progress of the child, but also its general condition and appearance. A quarterly report is also sent in from the priest or minister of the church which the child attends. There is thus a particular clergyman interested in each individual child.

Massachusetts, with a population of 3,000,000, has no institution for dependent children supported in any way by public funds. This state believes emphatically in the home family plan, and had, June 1, 1904, 1300 boys and girls under ten years of age boarded out at $1.50 per week, with an allowance of 50 cents per week for clothing. These children are carefully visited by eight paid women visitors, one being called visitor-at-large, and the seven assistants.

At that time there were 217 neglected and dependent boys in Massachusetts over ten years of age, and they were boarded in families, the state paying at the rate of from $1.50 to $2.00 per week. When these children are old enough to make their own way the state quits paying their board, but still maintains an assiduous care of them. June, 1904, there were 2,000 of these self-supporting children. These 2000 children are visited and aided in securing positions by three men who give all their

time, and six men who give part of their time, to this work, while the self-supporting girls are visited and aided in the same way by a woman visitor-at-large, four paid women assistants and an unpaid auxiliary board of sixty women.

The system of finding family homes for children was put in operation in the state of Michigan in 1874, and in 1900 child dependence had decreased in ratio to the population 400 per cent. A few years ago it was carefully figured out and it was found that Michigan had one dependent child to 10,000 of her population; in 1904 this was reduced to one to each 12,500; Ohio one dependent child to every 1,000 of her population; New York one to each 268 of her population, while California had one dependent child to each 250 of her population. The comparative ratio is practically the same to-day.

In Michigan, June 1, 1904, with a population of 2,500,000, there were 161 children supported by the state in public institutions and 1,486 in family homes under state supervision. The cost to the state of Michigan for the twelve months ending June 1, 1904, approximated $42,822.

Minnesota in 1885 followed the example of Michigan, securing the services of Mr. G. A. Merrill, of the latter state, to carry out the plan.

Minnesota is having all of the success in this work that has been achieved by Michigan, and these two great states of the northern middle west are laudable examples for the civilized world.

Now we come to California. With a population about the same as Minnesota and about two-thirds that of Michigan, California had, June 1, 1904, in orphanages 922 orphans, 3859 half orphans, abandoned children 412, foundlings 201, total dependent children in California institutions 5394, at an approximate annual cost of $349,397.90.

In addition to this, there are in California, under the supervision of the state, through the County Boards of Supervisors, 154 orphans, 2169 half orphans and 84 abandoned children, towards the care of which the state paid for the year ending June 1, 1904, $105,475.04.

This makes the number of dependent children cared for

by the state of Calofirnia for the year ending June 1, 1904, 7801, at a cost to the state of $454,872.94.

LOOK AT THIS TABLE.

State	Population	Dependent Children	Annual Cost.
Minnesota	2,000,000	760	$29,800
Michigan	2,500,000	1,647	42,822
California	2,000,000	7,801	454,872

In order to prevent any correction of this lamentable condition the legislature creating the California State Board of Charities carefully provided that they should not have the right to inspect the orphanages.

The direct money cost should not be considered, but incipient manhood and womanhood should be considered.

Every child placed in a good home with a good family stands at least five times the chance of proving a valuable, independent citizen that the child reared in the institution has.

Everything that is said here in regard to the advantages of the family home over the orphanage, applies with equal force against keeping young children in reformatories. There is rarely a child under twelve in a reformatory who could not and should not be placed in a good home.

I ask you, members of this Conference, to do all you can to educate and arouse the public conscience of California and get it turned toward the solution of this problem that means hope and a happy, useful future for the unfortunate.

California needs you and your experience.

Yet I must not leave you tonight with a dark impression of California.

God forbid! This is only a temporary blot on her escutcheon, put there by man's misguided hand.

California, with her snow-capped peaks ever mirrored on the placid surface of this earth's greatest ocean, California, with her gigantic sequoia — the largest and oldest living thing on this globe, gently shading the delicate fern composed of the most beautiful lace that ever came from Nature's loom; California,

with the oil from her olives that leads man away from his porcine appetite, and with oil from the bowels of the earth that furnishes inexpensive power for our mightiest engines; California, with her magnificent metropolis seated on the seven hills at the Golden Gate, and her wonderfully prosperous city that is growing like magic among the orange groves of the South; California, with her gold and silver mines that bless the earth and make their owners rich, and with a system of irrigation that fills the marts of the world with her oranges, her raisins and her wines.

Oh, California, glorious, erring California, "with all thy faults I love thee still."

OREGON AND PACIFIC STATES' NEEDS.

BY W. T. GARDNER, SUPERINTENDENT BOYS' AND GIRLS' AID SOCIETY OF OREGON.

In asking me to present a paper at this conference, our chairman gave me as a subject "Oregon and the Pacific States' Needs" — to point out the propriety of compulsory education, discuss the state subsidy of $50 per child, the advantages and disadvantages of mixing dependent and delinquent children in the same school, and methods of securing and testing homes in which children are placed.

Had I been called on to present this paper one year ago, I should feel obliged to ask that I be allowed to confine myself to the needs of Oregon and the Pacific States, as our needs were so great that time and space would not permit me to discuss any other matter. But the efforts of our workers on charitable and correctional lines were so successful at our last legislature that there is little left to ask for. The new laws passed in aid of charitable and correctional work were as follows: The Indeterminate Sentence and Parole Law for Convicts; the Juvenile Court Law; a law providing for the punishment of persons contributing to delinquency of children; to provide for transportation of the insane to the asylum by competent nurses employed by the institution; to prohibit females under twenty-one from

frequenting places where intoxicating liquors are sold, or the giving or selling intoxicating beverages to such females; connivance at prostitution made a felony; amending the child labor law, and making it compulsory to send children to school between the ages of eight and fourteen, and all who are not employed in some lawful work between the ages of fourteen and sixteen; also authorizing the State Board of Public Building Commissioners to purchase the necessary grounds and take the initiatory steps toward the establishment of an institute for feeble minded and epileptic children.

We have no State Industrial School for girls in Oregon, but wayward or delinquent girls are well cared for by charitable institutions, paid for by the state at the rate of $7.00 per month per capita. This is the provision of a law enacted by our last legislature. The fund is limited to $7,000 per annum; the Governor, State Treasurer and Secretary of State are constituted a Board of Commissioners, with visitorial powers. A certificate has to be forwarded quarterly to the Secretary of State, certified to by the County Judge, setting forth the amount such institution is entitled to. The age limit is twelve to eighteen. Thus possible abuse of this subsidy is obviated, and I believe that this class of delinquents are better and more economically cared for than it would be possible in a state institution. I do not feel that the creation of another state institution for this purpose under existing circumstances is, at the present time, a necessity.

THE PROPRIETY OF A CURATIVE ACT ON COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

I do not know of anything that is more necessary to the work of caring for dependent and delinquent children than compulsory education. With this law the child labor question will take care of itself. But in order to have the provisions of this law properly enforced, there should be truant officers, whose duty it should be to see that all children of school age attend school regularly. Washington is far ahead of us in this regard, as they have such officers in every city.

With many parents, either from fancied necessity or otherwise, there is an utter carelessness respecting sending their children to school. I have had many cases brought to my notice

where boys have persistently violated the rules of the public schools until they have been suspended and then expelled, after which they simply idle around the streets, not only to their own detriment but to the detriment of other boys whom they endeavor to have follow their example. Thus these boys quickly become delinquent and in many cases criminal. Sometimes parents offer for an excuse that they are too poor to keep their children in school and that it is necessary for them to go to work. Oregon has enacted compulsory education laws, which, up to now however, have not been enforced, principally I believe because the act was defective. I remember that one of the old laws provided that children under fourteen must be sent to school thirteen weeks each year.

We have just enacted at our last legislature an act to regulate the employment of child labor, two sections of which read as follows:

"Section 3. No child under the age of fourteen years shall be employed in any work or labor of any form, for wages or other compensation, to whomsoever payable, during the hours when the public schools of the town, district or city, in which he or she resides are in session.

"Section 4. Attendance at school shall be cumpulsory upon all children between the ages of eight and fourteen years in all cities, towns and villages, of the State of Oregon during the whole of the school term in the city, town or village, in which the child resides, and upon all children in such city, town and village, between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years who are not employed in some lawful work."

The penalty for the violation of the provisions of this act is a fine from $5 to $20, besides which, should a child become delinquent through the parents violating either Sections 3 or 4, they would at once become amenable to the act providing for the punishment of persons responsible for or contributing to the delinquency of children, the penalty for which is a fine not to exceed $1,000 or imprisonment in the county jail for a period not exceeding one year, or both. There is thus ample legislation on this point, but without truant officers to see that the law is enforced there will be many cases overlooked. The Child Labor

Commissioners seem to be the only persons whose direct duty it is to take care of this matter, and as they are mostly busy people, who serve without remuneration, I do not think it possible for the law to be properly enforced unless local peace officers will make it their business to assist.

I must repeat that, with the enforcement of the compulsory school law, the child labor question will take care of itself, for it would make it impossible for children to be employed during the sessions of the public schools. But, when vacation time comes, I would rather see a law enacted compelling children to work. Idleness is a prime factor in the generation of delinquency, and honest employment, no matter if it is attended with some danger, as factory work, etc., is much better than idleness.

STATE SUBSIDY OF $50 FOR CHILDREN IN PRIVATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

In this state there is a subsidy paid private charitable institutions of $50 per year for each indigent child or foundling under the age of fourteen years cared for by them. While this law might be abused, yet the statute is surrounded by so many protective provisions that I cannot see how it is possible for abuse to enter.

In the first place, there is only $6,000 per annum appropriated for this purpose.

Secondly, no institution receiving any direct or specific appropriation from the state can receive money under this act.

Thirdly, institutions applying for this subsidy must present to the Secretary of State, quarterly, a certificate from the county judge of the county in which such institution is located, to the effect that such institution is of the character required by the various provisions of the act. A full detailed report of the number and names of children must be certified to before the county judge, and he is empowered to make a personal investigation to corroborate such statement.

Fourthly, no institution with less than five inmates, or which has not been in existence for more than one year can make application.

Fifthly, the Governor, Secretary of State and State Treas-

urer, are created a visiting board, whose duty it is to ascertain if applications made by the institution are according to law.

Now, it would be impossible for the state to maintain an institution for destitute children for $6,000 per annum, for this embraces a class of children who cannot be placed in family homes, and as these children come from all parts of the state it is only fair that the burden of their support should fall equally.

In California they have a subsidy of $50 per annum for orphans and half orphans in institutions, and there is no limit as to the amount. I am told that more money is expended for this subsidy than would support several institutions if conducted by the state. This shows abuse of the system, but I claim that so long as this subsidy is surrounded by so many protective clauses, as in Oregon, it is a benefit to the dependent children of the state, as well as to the tax-payer.

THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF MIXING DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN IN THE SAME SCHOOL.

In the discussion of this subject, I think the first thought would be to determine what a delinquent child is. The definition of delinquent, as given in most of the Juvenile Court Laws, is a transgressor or offender. Therefore, any boy or girl committing a wrongful act or an act contrary to the rules of the public schools, or associating with persons of bad character, is deemed a delinquent. Now, in order to say that such a child is unfit to associate with children who have not been termed delinquents it is essential that we should know something more of the child's character and habits than we find from the records of the court.

Many children become delinquent through the carelessness or lack of experience in child-raising of their parents or guardians. Other children become delinquent from the loss of their parents, and having no one competent to guide their steps in the right path; others are simply degenerates, born of criminal parents and raised in criminal surroundings. I contend, as to the two first-mentioned causes of delinquency, that such children should not be openly branded as delinquents by being placed in any school or place of detention known to be for delinquent or criminal minors. Under proper surveillance, it is a benefit to

themselves, and not detrimental to other children, if they be placed at least for a time with those who are not considered of the delinquent class. I would here quote the words of Jacob Riis, who, a short time ago, made a visit to the institution of which I am superintendent. I asked him to examine some of the worst cases of delinquency then in our care. One of these was on the court record as a burglar, the other as a highway robber, but after having them nearly two years we would have to concede that they were both better and more trusty than any child under our care. They were regular attendants at the public school, and could be trusted to run errands or do any kind of work around the grounds. Mr. Riis said: "I do not consider that you have a delinquent child in your institution, and I have come to the conclusion that there are two records of a delinquent child — the court record and the record of the custodian, in whose care he has been for a year after being pronounced delinquent. I am sure the record of the latter should be taken as conclusive."

In pronouncing a boy delinquent no court, not even the Juvenile Court, can go back of evidence of a boy committing some specific infringement of the law, while it will in all probability inquire into the care of the parents of the boy and as to their fitness for retaining his custody. But, if the findings of the court are that he is a delinquent even although it is through the incompetency or carelessness of his parents, the commitment to an institution must be made. I contend that in such cases it would be doing a child an irreparable wrong to commit him to an institution, such as a reform school or industrial school, publicly known to be for delinquent or criminal minors.

In many cases a commitment to an institution such as ours is a lasting lesson to a wayward child. He will then begin to suppress his wayward tendencies and endeavor to become a better boy. There is nothing so harmful to a boy as to kill his self-respect.

I call to mind a circumstance which occurred some time ago, in which an eminent lady prominent in charitable work spoke feelingly to me regarding the mixing of dependent and delinquent children in our institution, and it seemed to me at the time that a cottage for the delinquent class should be erected. But

after looking over the list of children I had on hand, there were but three out of fifty that I could conscientiously designate as delinquent, and those three, two girls and one boy, ought not to have been under our care. I had the girls committed to the home for wayward girls and the boy was taken by some relatives and placed on a farm, where I understand he is now doing well. After looking over the proposition of erecting a cottage for delinquents, the thought came to me that such a cottage would brand the children placed in it as criminals, and therefore it would be better to at once send such children to the State Reform School.

After going into the details of the case minutely, I can say conscientiously that with children who have committed the first offense there is no harm in placing them in an institution with dependants, under proper surveillance, and that there is positively no detriment to the dependants in doing this.

METHODS OF SECURING AND TESTING HOMES IN WHICH CHILDREN ARE PLACED.

This is another very broad question. There are methods of securing and testing homes in which children are to be placed, which differ under different circumstances. We are doing our best in this regard.

In the first place, we have to take into consideration the local situation. In the eastern states it is possible for an institution in nearly every case to not only make inquiries respecting the applicant, but to visit the home and report thereon before the child is placed. This is the proper and most effectual method, and were I in a position to do so there should be no child sent into a home from the institution I represent unless this was done. But it must be remembered that in Oregon and most of our Pacific Coast States the area is large and thinly settled. We will suppose that I received an application from some person living in the extreme eastern part of our state, say in Harney County or Wallowa. We should not only have a long railroad journey, but a journey by stage, and the expense would be so great and so much time would be consumed that our placements would not only be much slower but much more expensive. The method pursued by us is, first, on receiving a written application from any

person for the custody of a child on indenture or for adoption, we send them a printed form which they will fill out. The answers to the questions therein give a good index of the family surroundings, distance from the public school, religious belief, etc. There are also references given to whom we write, and in addition to this we have in every vicinity people of undoubted integrity who take an interest in our work with whom we communicate in confidence, and their answer is considered by us conclusive. The child is then forwarded to the home, in the custody of an agent of this society, either paid or voluntary, and should the agent on arrival disapprove of the conditions of the home the child would be returned. Six months after having been placed in a home, the child is visited by our agent and a full report made. To show that this method is working well, only three children out of between four and five hundred placed in family homes were removed for cause.

It has been my experience that placing a child in a family home on indenture is a mistake, for in many cases the custodian will manage to evade paying the required sum when the child becomes of age and if from any cause they wish to terminate the contract it will be done no matter how binding it may have been drawn. The only agreement that I enter into with a person who takes a child from us is as follows:

First. That they will send it to school regularly during the entire school session, until it has passed through the grammar school grades.

Second. That it shall be well and comfortably clothed.

Third. That it shall receive the proper medical attention when sick.

Fourth. That they will allow no correspondence to or from the child while in their custody, except through the office of the society.

Fifth. That they will allow the child to correspond with the superintendent of the society at any time it may wish to do so, and will encourage such correspondence.

Sixth. That they will at all times encourage the visits of the society's agents, and allow all private interviews they may require.

Seventh. That they will allow no relatives or friends to visit the child, nor will they allow the child to visit relatives or friends, except by special permission from the superintendent.

Eighth. That they will not transfer the child to any person without a written permission from the superintendent.

Ninth. That should they become dissatisfied with the child in their custody, they will return it to the Receiving Home at their own expense.

Tenth. That at any time should the society, by its managers, wish to return the child to the Receiving Home for any cause whatsoever, they will cheerfully surrender the child to the society's officers or forward it to the Receiving Home, at Portland, Ore., provided they are furnished with necessary transportation or funds to meet expenses. This rule to be always in effect unless special agreement is made to the contrary.

In general, they promise to treat the child under their care as if it were their own.

Thus it can be seen we give to the custodian as much latitude as we ask for ourselves. Although we reserve the right to call in the child at any time, we give to the custodian the same right to return it at any time. The agreement is signed in duplicate, one copy being filed at our office and the other retained by the custodian, so that should there be any controversy about the return of a child there is no court but would determine that we were its legally appointed and acting guardians and at once award the child to our custody.

ETHICAL CULTURE IN CHILDREN'S INSTITUTIONS.

BY E. P. WENTWORTH, SUPT. OF THE STATE SCHOOL FOR BOYS, PORTLAND, MAINE.

The subject assigned to me by the committee is "Ethical Culture in Children's Institutions." The subject is so large, the paper necessarily so brief, my time and opportunities so limited, that if I can provoke a lively discussion of this all-important subject, I shall probably accomplish all that can reasonably be expected.

Do those of us who have charge of children's institutions realize the pre-eminence that should be given to ethical training? The moral nature is to a human being what the rudder is to the ship. The rudder guides the ship along its devious way. The moral nature directs the physical and intellectual forces of man and guides him safely along the sea of life.

A physical weakling or a feeble-minded person we may pity, but a moral degenerate is an enemy to himself, and a menace to the world. Important as physical health and intellectual vigor may be, they are but the foundations on which to build a structure that is nobler and higher. To supply the material and intellectual needs of our boys and girls is a duty incumbent upon us, and one which we are not likely to forget; but if in the turmoil and strife of daily life, the petty details of our work absorb too large a proportion of our time and strength, we may unwittingly neglect the higher duties of our position, and thereby fail to achieve the highest success.

The superintendent who conscientiously seeks the highest development of the moral nature of his pupils will be likely to commence their moral training by first subjecting himself to rigid moral training. The superintendent is the one to whom the boys and girls as well as the officers and employes all look as their guide and instructor in morals. He strikes the moral key-note to which the whole institution will be attuned. If he is sincere in purpose, if he loves truth for its own sake, if his life is clean and pure, and the spirit of Christ dwell in him, the moral influence pervading the institution will surely be uplifting. From the superintendent radiates constantly an influence good or bad, warming and lighting, or chilling and blasting the moral nature of all within the sphere of his influence. Ought we not, therefore, to guard well our words and actions that they may accomplish good in the world and not evil?

If the superintendent should be a man of upright moral character, free from all bad habits, it is equally important that all the other officers of the institution should also be of high moral character. The superintendent comes into frequent contact with his pupils; but many of the other officers come into constant contact with them, and their influence over the children

must be very great. If ethical culture is to accomplish its legitimate work, it must be given by officers who in their daily intercourse with the boys and girls are governed by high moral principles. A man who uses profane or vulgar language is not likely to cultivate in his pupils a love of sweetness and purity in thought and life; and he whose breath is ladened with fumes of tobacco or liquor can hardly with consistency and sincerity, teach boys and girls how to make their bodies holy temples.

The task of finding men and women of high moral character to take charge of our cottages and workshops is one of the most difficult tasks of the many difficult duties of a superintendent, yet I believe that success in the ethical culture of boys and girls depends upon it. A desire to secure the greatest efficiency in the workshop or on the farm, or to make the best display in the schoolroom or on the drill ground should never lead a superintendent to retain in his position a single day any employe whose moral character is not above reproach.

The true method of ethical culture in children's institutions is to bring the children's minds and souls constantly into the closest contact with true manhood and true womanhood.

The particular methods to be employed in ethical training of the young must vary with circumstances. We ought, however, to remember that a large part of so-called ethical training is really intellectual, not moral training. The study of a text book on morals, for instance, is chiefly an intellectual pursuit. The mind is taught to perceive the importance of good morals, to discriminate between what is right and what is wrong. As an intellectual pursuit this study is valuable, and by the enlightenment of the intellect the moral character of the pupil may assert itself more intelligently. It is certainly important to be able to discern what is right and what is wrong, yet most of our failures in life come not from inability to know the right, but from unwillingness to do right regardless of consequences. The children need to acquire strength of moral character, the ability to stand for the right, to deny one's self for the good of others, to brave the ridicule of one's associates, and the hatred of the world.

Persons grow strong morally just as they grow strong

physically or intellectually, by exercise. Physical exercise develops the body; intellectual exercise develops the faculties of the mind. So the moral nature grows strong by exercise; that is, by habitually choosing the right and doing the right. A moral act is essentially a choice. Good and evil being presented, the person chooses the good. If the moral nature of a child is to be developed, the choice of good and evil must be constantly presented to him, and he must be taught to habitually choose the good, not for any reward which he is to receive but because it is right, because he must choose it to be true to his own convictions. Herein lies one of the difficulties of moral training in a children's institution. If we present no opportunities of choice to the pupil, we give him no opportunities of ethical culture. If we present him an opportunity for choice, he must have the power of choosing either the good or the evil. We cannot make a boy honest by simply taking away the opportunity to steal. We cannot make a boy trusty by taking away all opportunity to escape. We may, by depriving the boy of all opportunity to do wrong, starve his moral nature, but we can never feed and strengthen it by so doing. Give children opportunities of choice adapted to their age, intelligence, and moral condition, and help them in their choice of the good only so far as assistance is really needed by them. If they are to advance in moral culture it must be by their own efforts. Coercion robs them of moral strength.

The great problem of the Institution is not to train the children in habits of obedience merely, but to train them in the habits of self-control and right choice. There are methods of discipline which may secure good order, commendable industry and obedience to the regulation of the school, and yet make only submissive machines of the human being subjected to them. The problem we have to deal with is not to reduce boys and girls to puppets, even though they be obedient and law-abiding puppets; but to prepare them to be self-governing men and women who will fill honorably whatever positions in life they may be called upon to occupy.

In the great world in which we live we are surrounded by forces, materials, laws, and human relationships, out of which

grow duties and responsibilities of the highest importance to ourselves and others. These duties and responsibilities relate to ourselves as individuals, as members of a family, as members of our community, and as the individual units which make up a great nation and the world. An Institution is a little world in itself. Each cottage is a community by itself, having its own customs and laws. Each pupil in a cottage is an individual unit, and as such has his own duties and responsibilities from which there is no escape. Here is an opportunity to teach the pupil the duties he owes his teachers, and to his fellow students, to teach him the meaning of civic and social obligations and responsibilities, and to give him opportunities of experiencing for himself the pleasure there is in the honorable fulfilment of the manifold obligations of life. The spirit of self-sacrificing devotion to the good of the cottage as a whole, and to the institution as a whole, a sincere and earnest purpose on the part of each pupil to fulfill honorably his own position as a member of the community, is an uplifting influence of tremendous power; and the good it can accomplish in the ethical education of the pupil is beyond computation.

But the morality taught in children's institutions must not be a morality, cold and dead, but one instinct with Divine life and love. It may not be practicable in public institutions to teach religion in the form of catechism or dogma, but it is practicable for such institutions to be pervaded by a Christian spirit and to carry on its work in harmony with Christian truth. The Sabbath day, with all its sweet and tender influences, affords opportunities of leading pupils to a contemplation of the higher truths of life, and of impressing upon their youthful minds spiritual lessons of priceless value. The Sabbath should not be the tedious day of the olden time, neither should it be a weekly festival for grand military displays, athletic sports and the gratification of worldly appetites and passion; but rather it should be a day of rest from the usual occupations of the week. It should be a day of quiet contemplation of eternal truths. The Sabbath may be and should be a day of pleasure such as comes from religious services and spiritual exercises, from health-

ful literature, inspiring music, quiet contemplation and earnest heart-to-heart talks with the superintendent or other officers.

In conclusion, there can be no higher and more important duty for superintendents of children's institutions than the duty of cultivating the moral nature of the children under their care. There are two ways in which children readily learn; by imitation and by doing. Let the children live with and learn to love officers and teachers whom they can safely look upon as models, as worthy of imitation as human beings can reasonably be expected to be; and let them actually practice in deciding moral questions for themselves and in doing moral acts. Moral activity means moral growth, moral development, moral strength. In their own little world let the children feel their civic and social responsibilities, and learn to respond with willing hearts to calls of duty. Let their morality be not a dead thing, like the morality of the Pharisee who stood in the temple and with a loud voice thanked God that he was not as other men are; but let it be the morality of one who forgets himself in humble, loving services for others; and whose heart is void of offence toward God and man.

NECESSITY FOR FURTHER PREVENTIVE AND PROTECTIVE CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION.

BY EDGAR T. DAVIES, CHIEF FACTORY INSPECTOR OF ILLINOIS; PRESIDENT OF INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF FACTORY INSPECTORS OF N. A.

Many of us have taken up the children's burden. We believe, as all humane people believe, that child labor must be driven forever from our shores.

Commercialism is a product of civilization, and child labor is the pathetic product of commercialism. It can be said without fear of successful denial that many of our corrective and charitable institutions have been filled, year after year, with truant, dependent and delinquent children, who are largely there on

account of home environment and the sins of omission on the part of parents. Poverty, in a great many instances, has been the basic cause of the child's undoing, and, by a strange perversity of fate, social conditions of this great country of ours have produced greater prosperity for the rich and greater poverty for the poor.

In states where effective child labor laws exist, they have become moral and material factors, not only in a betterment of the child's life, but also in a promotion of school attendance in the elementary grades. This result has invariably followed in states where the compulsory education law has provided for the compulsory attendance of children under fourteen, for the entire time that the public schools were in session each year. In every instance where the spirit of official co-operation between factory inspectors, the school authorities and truant officers has been manifested in official duty, it has achieved gratifying results for the good of the child, for the good of the home, for the good of the schools, the community and the future America. No child labor law can be successful in its enforcement unless there is an effective compulsory education law to insure the school attendance of the child after it has been taken from the factory. The child labor law reaches the employer and the compulsory education law reaches the parent. The purport of child labor legislation is to insure the educational and social advancement of the child.

An educational test for children seeking employment exists in those states which have the most advanced child labor legislation. This test is usually ability to read and write, or a certain amount of school attendance, or both. The states which require this educational test are Colorado, Connecticut, Kansas, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Washington, Arkansas, Indiana, Michigan, Oregon, Texas and Vermont. School attendance only is required in Louisiana, Maine, Nebraska and the Dakotas, to the age of fourteen years before certificate is issued. No educational test is required in most of the Southern States or in California, Utah, Wisconsin, Wyoming, Nevada, Iowa, Idaho and the District of Columbia.

Proof of age, that very essential feature, is safeguarded in

but a few of the states which have child-saving legislation. Twenty-two states require no proof of age at all beyond the mere affidavit of parent or guardian, unsupported by school records or other proof. In order to be an effective law every child labor enactment should require proof of the child's age, not only by the sworn statement of the parent but by a verification of age from the school records, transcripts of birth certificates, certificates of baptism or passports.

The most successful results are attained in the indorsement of the law in those states where the children bring certificates from the school they last attended, showing age, date and place of birth, and a record of the grade which the child was last in at school, together with a statement from the teacher, showing that the child is able to read and write legibly simple sentences in the English language. Every child should complete the eighth grade of an elementary education before it begins to battle with the industrial world.

With the personal identification of the child, and the presence of the parent or guardian, when initiative certificate is presented, many evasions of the law are checked when the working certificate is issued.

I believe the most feasible plan in the issuance of the working certificate in the larger municipalities is the establishment of a central bureau, where the public and parochial schools each have a representative and where a systematic record is kept by the school authorities. The necessity of working certificates, having the personal identification of the child, is apparent when we realize that these certificates might otherwise be transferred to children other than those to whom they were issued.

There is great need of a uniform law governing child labor and compulsory education in every state. At present we have a diversity of laws. There is no uniformity on age limit, required number of weeks of school attendance, proof of age, and educational test. There is also a lack in many states of that great spirit of humanity and benevolence, that should place a restriction upon the hours of labor of children and upon the employment of juvenile wage earners in hazardous vocations. In factories the max-

imum number of hours should not exceed eight for any child under the age of sixteen. If eight hours is long enough for a man to work, it is certainly long enough for a child to work. In offices and lighter employment, children should not be employed over nine hours.

Employment should be prohibitive for any girl under the age of sixteen in any vocation where she is compelled to remain standing. The employment of minors at night should be absolutely prohibited. No minor, male or female, under the age of eighteen years, should be permitted to perform or be employed in any capacity in any concert hall or place of amusement where intoxicating liquors are sold.

The newsboy problem in metropolitan centers rises up ever. This problem has been made all the more complex by the newsgirl problem, and by the presence of so many small vendors who are calling their wares at hours when more fortunate children are at home and in bed. There should be a more strict regulation of the newsboys in large cities, and a more effective system which would not permit them to sell newspapers during school hours. The police of the larger municipalities should awaken to the necessity of keeping these children off the streets at night. Negligent parents who contribute to juvenile delinquency should be brought into juvenile courts and made parti-defendants. Parents should be arrested more and children less.

States and municipalities should expend more money in adequate appropriations to enforce legislation on child saving. Great states and great cities have not as yet fully awakened to the fact that it is cheaper to make large appropriations and enforce these laws than to prosecute criminals and provide for pauperism, insanity and dependants in the future.

In the enactment of all child labor laws, the employment of children in theaters should be regulated. Moreover, the burden of proof of age, in all cases where dispute arises regarding the age of the child found employed contrary to law, should rest on the parent and the employer and not on the state.

In view of the disclosures recently made in Chicago by the school authorities, it is apparent that many children who are placed in homes by irresponsible home-finding societies are not

properly looked after by the societies after they are placed with foster-parents. The result has been that they have not been sent to school, but have been compelled to lead lives of drudgery in the performance of household work. The result has been a pernicious child slavery system, which is as bad if not worse than servitude in the factory. Investigations show that many girls of immature age have been taken from institutions and placed in private homes, to perform the manual labor of able-bodied servants. In the city of Chicago, factory inspectors and truant officers are co-operating to stamp out this evil. It should be the duty of factory inspectors in every community to exercise the utmost vigilance to correct this disgraceful practice.

Factory inspectors should have greater police power. There is much difficulty encountered in the enforcement of the laws to-day, owing to the lack of authority vested in factory inspectors in the peremptory discharge or removal of a child who is working contrary to statutes, in establishments where employers are defiant and seek to evade the law on technicalities. The factory inspectors should have the power, in such emergencies, to remove a child from the stage, or from hazardous, immoral or unhealthy employment.

New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Chicago are now infested with the pernicious sweat-shop system, which is a menace to the health of the community and a danger to society. Sallow-faced children and haggard and hollow-eyed men and women who are prematurely old plainly tell the story of the lives that have been broken by the evil effects of long hours of labor spent in bending over the machine, in poorly ventilated shops. The people of the Pacific Coast should profit by the saddening experience of the east, and prevent the sweating system from securing a foothold in their largely populated cities.

Factory inspectors and their deputies, and all officers engaged in child saving and charitable work who are employed by states and municipalities, should be selected on a basis of their practical knowledge, their fitness for the work, and their fidelity to official duty. They should be men and women who take a heart interest in their work and whose endeavors are prompted by principle as

well as pay. It should be a labor of sympathy, impelled by civic patriotism.

We have not as yet attained the ideal child labor law, such as should be recognized as the standard of practical perfection. The enactment and enforcement of all child labor laws must be tempered with the spirit of humanity and reason. It is our plain duty to rescue children from lives of servitude in factories, in workshops, in mines, in sweat-shops, and from employment during the night. Let us take these children from the hot-beds of illiteracy, and place them in the class rooms of our public schools. There they will study to become useful citizens, to grow up into healthful and honorable manhood and womanhood.

INDUSTRIAL CAUSES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY.

MRS. FLORENCE KELLEY, SECRETARY NATIONAL CONSUMER'S LEAGUE.

Among the causes of juvenile delinquency frequently overlooked are two of an industrial nature, namely, first the reckless exposure of inexperienced children by their employers to the temptation to steal and to contact with evil people, and second night work of many varieties.

As to stealing, one rarely goes to the post-office in any large city without encountering boys engaged in the purchase of stamps with cash belonging to the employer. Often these boys are entirely new employes, carrying perhaps for the first time in their lives any considerable sum of money. If a boy thus tempted pilfers the money, the whole machinery of punishment awaits him. But what of the ruthless employer? For him there is not even censure, much less penalty.

The destruction of telegraph and messenger boys goes merrily on. Within a month the papers of New York City have recounted with approval the achievement of a messenger boy of fifteen years who discovered for another friend a sister who had been lost to sight. The fact that in the process, the young boy

in the ordinary course of his business had made the acquaintance of hundreds of bad men and women was so common as to excite no interest.

Within a fortnight a little boy brought me a telegram at 11:30 P. M. in the city of Boston. When I asked how he happened to be working so late, he said "Oh! this aint late. The late bunch come on at midnight. This is the evenin' bunch until twelve. Besides I'm fifteen!" If he was really fifteen he was amazingly small and young looking for his years. The associations of such a boy during the evening hours are admirably calculated to promote juvenile delinquency.

The evening employment of young girls involves travel homeward under most undesirable conditions. Wherever all night work is permitted (as in the southern states and New Jersey), the rest hour at midnight is a pitfall. The factories have no chaperons.

Finally, whenever the mother works at night, there is inevitable neglect of the children. Cases are not rare in which young daughters pay a terrible penalty for the known absence of the mother at her work. It would be hard to invent a more odious substitute for the enlightened Swiss method of providing school stipends for the children of widows, than our brutal method of sending the widow out at night to scrub railway stations and office buildings to the ruin of her health and the neglect of her orphan brood.

V.

Juvenile Courts.

RECENT PROGRESS OF THE JUVENILE COURT MOVEMENT.

REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE, BEN. B. LINDSEY, CHAIRMAN.

At the last annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, held at Portland, Maine, the committee on children appointed a sub-committee on juvenile courts and probation.

A circular was issued by the chairman in the early fall of 1904. This circular was sent to the daily press, philanthropic, religious and educational journals throughout the United States and Canada and containing the following:

"Among the important purposes of the committee is to urge the adoption of juvenile court laws for all the states, to be uniform in principle and application, as far as practicable.

To bring about a practical, sensible and sane method of administrative work through the agencies of such courts in the correction of children offenders, avoiding the dangers of leniency on the one hand and brutality on the other.

Some of the special features to be urged are:

Laws holding parents and others to a rigid, legal accountability for the moral delinquencies of children.

Colorado is the first state so far to have such a general law and after nearly two years of active enforcement it has proved eminently practical and satisfactory and is considered the most important feature of the juvenile laws of that state.

To establish detention homes or schools in place of the jail for children offenders.

To encourage personal, practical, active work and earnest effort to bring about correction, as far as possible, through aid, help, encouragement, proper firmness and assistance, rather than punishment, fear, hate and degradation.

The aid and encouragement of the press has been and is a most powerful factor in the accomplishment of these purposes,

and as an effort will be made in many states the coming winter (1905) to pass such laws, we hope to have the support of the press.

The problem of the children is the problem of the state, and certainly of as much importance as the political questions of tariff or money, and unquestionably closer to the hearts and homes of the American people."

The press, the pulpit, the educational and charity organizations generally throughout the country during the past two years have shown an unusual interest in the subject of the juvenile court. "Charities," of New York City, has devoted two magazine issues to the subject. "The Juvenile Court Record," of Chicago, has kept up a persistent campaign. "The Journal of Education," of Boston, has presented the matter repeatedly to the educators of the nation. Tons of literature were sent out from Denver and Chicago. At the World's Fair in St. Louis, a creditable exhibit of juvenile court work attracted much attention in the department of charities and corrections. Six of the leading cities in this work took part in the exhibit. I think the exhibit more properly belonged to the educational department. With scarcely an exception all of the powers and influences exerted by the press, educators and philanthropic workers have favored the juvenile court and probation system as the wisest method yet devised for the care of delinquent and dependent children.

The most noteworthy declaration in behalf of the juvenile court was that contained in the message of President Roosevelt sent to Congress, December 6th, 1904. From this message we quote the following:

"In the vital matter of taking care of children, much advantage could be gained by a careful study of what has been accomplished in such states as Illinois and Colorado by the juvenile courts. The work of the juvenile court is really a work of character building. It is now generally recognized that young boys and young girls who go wrong should not be treated as criminals, not even necessarily as needing reformation, but rather as needing to have their characters formed, and for this end to have them tested and developed by a system of probation. Much admirable work has been done in many of our commonwealths by earnest men and women who have made a special study of the needs of those classes of children which furnish the greatest number of

juvenile offenders and therefore the greatest number of adult offenders; and by their aid, and by profiting by the experience of the different states and cities in these matters, it would be easy to provide a good code for the District of Columbia."

Mr. Jacob Riis has also greatly aided in the work by frequent appeals for the juvenile laws.

I find that a number of states have good laws for the visitation and after care of dependent children placed in family homes, but Illinois during the past winter has given us a very complete law of this character, and it is to be earnestly recommended, especially in those states where there are great numbers of dependent children. At the legislative sessions of 1905, Colorado and Illinois have enacted substantially the same law, making it a felony to take indecent liberties with children. Illinois fixes the age of consent at sixteen. In Colorado for the past ten years it has been eighteen. In 1903, Colorado passed a law extending the jurisdiction of the juvenile court to all cases under twenty-one years of age, but it was so framed that it is practically impossible to bring any cases to that court unless they are first offenders and above seventeen they are not permitted to be termed delinquents or subject to be sent to the industrial schools. We prefer this plan to raising the age of delinquents to eighteen. I am opposed to raising the age limit of delinquents under our present system of industrial schools. I only speak for myself. Others of our committee no doubt share a different opinion. The juvenile court proper is a chancery court. I do not understand this is true as to offenders under sixteen years of age in New York and some other states having children's courts. The true juvenile law forbids charging the child with crime. Without this feature much injustice may be done, as pointed out by Judge Robert Wilkin of the children's court of Brooklyn in a recent address. Judge Wilkin worked hard for a law to lessen the severity upon children of trivial offenses. Gov. Odell vetoed the law. Judge Wilkin pointed out the fact that:

"If a boy is convicted of breaking a window, it will remain against him for life. It will prohibit him from entering a civil service examination. It will forbid him from becoming a brave fireman, office holder in the city departments, a letter carrier

for Uncle Sam, enlistment in the navy, any examination either in the city, state or federal."

Some of the noblest, best boys I ever knew would be barred from the navy if the rule was followed excluding those who have been convicted of so-called crime.

Mrs. Frederick Schoff and her co-workers in Pennsylvania, secured the passage of the adult delinquent law by the legislature of that state, but it was vetoed by the governor.

During the past winter a large number of states established juvenile courts, and almost an equal number already having such legislation passed amendments or additional laws improving those already existing. The most noteworthy feature of such laws has been to make parents and citizens responsible legally for the moral welfare of children. The entire country seems to have suddenly awakened to this necessity. Parents are being held by law to a more rigid accountability for the moral welfare of their offspring than at any period in the history of the world. This responsibility has increased with the greater temptations and possibilities for evil among the children in the cities of this country. The most advanced of these laws holds parents accountable not only for the faults of their own children, but in certain cases for the faults of other children. This is absolutely necessary because of the constant association among children in neighborhoods where the influence of a child from a bad home may completely destroy the good influence brought into the home life of a child from a good home. It is just as important for the protection of the boy whose parents would not send him to the saloon to purchase liquor, or to the railroad tracks to steal grain or coal, that the parents of the boy next door should exercise similar care. Association in the street, the school and the playground is necessary and constant, and the value of a good home may depend very often upon the good homes and good influences in the entire neighborhood. A number of questions were sent by myself as chairman of the committee to the police department of over one hundred of the principal cities and towns of the country. Sixty replies were received, and in answer to the question "What, in your opinion, are the principal causes of trouble among the young people in your city?" without a single exception every chief

of police answered emphatically: "The parents are to blame." The following are fair samples of all:

"Parents allow their children too much liberty. Boys and girls of tender years are allowed on the street at night, permitted to go to dances until late hours and other places without chaperonage, without the parents knowing the whereabouts of their children and without sufficient confidence between parent and child to enable the parent to keep track of the boy or girl."

Again, as emphasized by Chief of Police O'Neill, of Chicago:

First, incompetent parents; second, the irregular work and occupation of boys, such as selling papers, carrying grips, picking snipes, etc.; third, poverty and a disregard for the rights of others."

The states adopting adult responsibility laws during the past winter are: New York, Illinois, Indiana, New Jersey, Nebraska, Utah, Kansas, Minnesota, Oregon, and Missouri. Owing to the difficulty in obtaining copies of the statutes, it may be necessary to revise this list. Those states adopting the juvenile law in 1905 are: Kansas, Nebraska, Utah, Minnesota, New Hampshire, Tennessee, Georgia, Washington, Oregon, and the Territory of Hawaii. Kentucky will no doubt pass the law during the coming winter. It is hardly within the scope of this report to attempt to describe the details of these laws. Generally speaking the principle of probation for juvenile offenders is recognized and established. Children are permitted to be corrected without being stigmatized with crime. The detention home or school supersedes the jail. Paid probation officers are more generously granted, and the age limit in a number of instances has been raised from sixteen to eighteen years.

The definition of delinquency is also much enlarged over that originally given to delinquent persons by Illinois in 1899, and by Colorado to a "disorderly juvenile person" during the same year.

The effect of this is to permit the court to intervene for the correction of the child before the offender has committed a more serious act and at the same time having the effect of increasing the responsibility of the parents. The definition of delinquency made by Colorado is the one most generally accepted. This definition includes any child as delinquent who "patronizes, visits

or enters a disorderly house, or any saloon or dram shop where intoxicating liquors are sold, or public pool room or bucket shop; or who wanders about the street in the night time without being engaged in any lawful business or occupation; or about any railroad yard or tracks; or who jumps or hooks on any moving train; or enters a car or engine without authority; or who habitually uses foul, obscene, profane or indecent language; or is guilty of immoral conduct in any public place or about any school house."

The adult delinquent law of Nebraska is substantially the same as that of Colorado, and in substance is embodied in similar statutes of some of the other states. This law declares:

"In all cases where any child shall be a delinquent or dependent child, as defined by the statute of the state, the parent or parents or person having custody of such child, or any other person responsible for, or by any act encouraging, causing or contributing to the delinquency or dependency of such child, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon trial and conviction thereof, shall be fined in a sum not to exceed $500, or imprisonment in the county jail for a term not exceeding six months, or punishment by both such fine and imprisonment."

Provision is then made for suspending the sentence and placing the parent upon probation, if, in the opinion of the court, this shall seem justifiable.

The effect of this advanced juvenile court legislation is not only to compel the home to do its duty where it is negligent, but to assist that home where, because of misfortune rather than neglect, the child is becoming wayward. This is true in a large number of homes, especially where the father has deserted, or through drink or shiftlessness has left the burden of the children to the mother, who is compelled by arduous toil to support the family.

An important effect of the new legislation placing greater responsibility upon the parent and the home will be to reduce commitments to institutions. A father who finds his boy arrested for delinquency is not likely to be indifferent to his commitment to a state institution, where he will be well cared for, if the father knows the result may be his own incarceration in jail. In Colorado for nearly three years the juvenile court has had the advan-

tage of the adult delinquent law, and the sending of a father or other careless citizen to jail (as we have done in a number of cases) has had a most salutary effect upon a whole neighborhood, if not the entire city.

A number of states have adopted statutes compelling parents to support their children committed to public or private institutions because of either delinquency or dependency. Indiana and Colorado have just adopted a very complete law in this respect. This class of legislation combined with that already discussed, is displacing what was becoming a serious weakness in the juvenile court system, viz., a disposition on the part of the state to relieve the home of its responsibilities.

The answer made by every chief of police convinces us that the number of careless, negligent parents shows an even greater increase than their delinquent offspring. This carelessness is not limited to the homes of the poor. Largely, because of poverty, it is most accentuated in such homes. The advantages of wealth save many children of the rich from the children's court. They may not be petty thieves, but debauched with wealth and selfishness they are fast becoming a dangerous element of citizenship. From this class is being recruited many of the social perverts and weaklings and the unconscionable frenzied financiers and so-called business men whose business crimes are shielded because of superior cunning or intelligence, and very often lack of law to reach them, or laws poorly enforced because of moral cowardice of officials. They prey upon the public by that kind of piracy and brigandage which seldom brings the perpetrator to the courts, but which is nevertheless doing more to undermine the Republic than all the petty thieves who come from the homes of the poor and ignorant. There are homes in which the household god is money, and the boy learns selfishness and greed. The examples furnished by the parents in such homes and the examples furnished the children of the poor by the exploitation of such men, as held up to the public in the daily press and gossiped about in the homes of the people, is to my mind a most serious menace to the men of tomorrow. Every citizen of a community who through dishonest political or business methods accomplishes what seems to be a success is "doing an injury to one of these

little ones" of whom he may never have heard, but for whom he is morally responsible by his very acts and conduct as a citizen. Of such a one our Master said:

"It were better that a mill stone be hanged about his neck and he be cast into the sea."

As much therefore as we are able to be congratulated upon the progress made, we are compelled to admit that some of the greatest injuries to children cannot be reached by law. I have been companionable with some of the boys in the children's court, and I have had bright boys of the street ask me questions, of which the following are fair samples:

"Judge, if So and So (referring to an official holding a prominent position entrusted with sacred public duties) can stuff the ballot box, why can't the kids play for money?"

This was the query of a newsboy who associated with a gang of crap shooters within a stone's throw of a gambling house protected by the police department, running in violation of the law and well known to these boys of the street who had often suffered the jail and degradation for doing what their elders did under the protection of their "pull" with the city government. A petty imitation of their elders made criminals of the boys, and the same crime on a larger scale made protected and even prominent citizens of the men. The great wealth they gained by crime seemed actually in some quarters to add respectability and political power to the men. It brought the policeman and his club to the boys. Another boy asked me how much money each alderman was to get for purchasing a certain site for a public building. He read in the papers of the open charges of graft against prominent citizens. Another boy once asked me if the saloon keeper let the boys in the saloon on Sunday or sold them liquor, and the policeman (whom he named familiarly) did not arrest the man, why it was the "kids could not swipe things." I have had a sixteen year old girl brought to our court for immorality, complain to me bitterly that the policeman who arrested her protected the dance hall or wine room keeper. She had no respect for the police department and saw no justice in law. Another girl said to me:

"I like to dance and I want some pleasure in life, but the only place I can go to is H's dance hall. If I was in a wealthy home and could go to M's place, where there are only nice people, I should never get in trouble."

H's place was a disreputable dive. M's was more exclusive and fashionable.

These things demonstrate that laws cannot do everything. They emphasize the responsibility of those entrusted to enforce laws. Speaking generally, children are always better than their elders. If men obeyed and enforced laws we would have no serious trouble from children.

There is much that might be said in a report of this character which the time for its delivery will not permit, and I must forego many other general observations which I would like to make. It will be noted, however, that wonderful progress is being made all over this country, especially in the last two years, in behalf of the children and the home.

A juvenile improvement association or children's aid society is getting to be a very popular feature in connection with the work of the juvenile court. Such an institution has been recently established in a number of cities as the result of the juvenile court work. In my own city of Denver, the Juvenile Improvement Association has been in existence nearly three years and during that time has accomplished much good work in improving conditions in neighborhoods by our boys' clubs, playgrounds, fresh air funds, obtaining employment and relief and in many ways assisting needy children and needy homes. This work does not seriously encroach upon that of the charity organization society, although in some cities it may be all taken care of by the various philanthropic organizations. Indianapolis and Seattle have recently organized such an aid to the juvenile court work. If the purpose of the juvenile court is to keep children out of institutions as far as possible and correct them in the home, it is certainly in my judgment, a legitimate part of this work to aid, assist and cooperate with every movement designed to keep children out of the juvenile court.

I believe that judges of juvenile courts should not be limited to lawyers. I predict the time will come when the educator, and

not the lawyer in the capacity of the ordinary judge, will control the work now called the children's court.

Another encouraging feature of any juvenile court work is the probation system which cooperates with the schools. It is especially a help to homes in which there is no father, the mother works, and because of misfortune discipline is lax. We realize that each particular city to a certain extent must govern its probation system by its own peculiar conditions, and what might be successful in one city would be quite impracticable, if not impossible, in another city. Large cities might be divided into districts with a central headquarters in charge of a chief officer for that district, connecting by telephones and other methods of co-operation with schools and employers. In Denver, the probationers are divided into school boys and working boys. The school boys report to the Juvenile Improvement Association every two weeks with a report from their teacher showing their progress and conduct. If any one in the neighborhood of a probationer is violating any law for the protection of children and it is known to this probationer he always reports it as a part of his duty as a little citizen. The probationers are taught to overcome evil with good, not with the jail, the strap or degradation. Confidence and trust are encouraged. This has succeeded so admirably that every child sent to the Industrial School is sent alone without an officer, and not one thus trusted has ever failed to reach his destination, though it involves many temptations to escape.

As chairman of your committee, during the past winter and during the session of the legislatures, between January 15th and February 19th, I visited personally the following states: Nebraska, Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, New York, New Hampshire, Ohio, and Washington City. In Washington City, I had the honor to confer with President Roosevelt concerning juvenile court laws proposed for the District of Columbia, and in which the president expressed the most intense interest. His knowledge and interest in the matter was far beyond that of all the senators and representatives with whom I had the opportunity to confer. I found in Washington very little, if any, interest among the representatives

or committees in the House in behalf of the children's laws. There was much more interest shown in the Senate. The Board of Children's Guardians of Washington City and Mr. McFarland, the Chief Commissioner for the District as well as local committees from the Women's Clubs did heroic work for the children's laws, but all to no purpose. They are not discouraged and will renew the fight at the next session.

I had the honor to speak to several legislatures, some in session, and to some at special meetings called by the members in behalf of children's laws. Everywhere I went, in a visit covering some twelve or fifteen large cities in nearly as many states, I found the members of the women's clubs, while all devoted to their individual homes, yet earnestly working for laws to help the homes of others. The charity organizations were of course generally active.

The Visitation and Aid Society of Chicago, of which our good friend Mr. Hurley is chief sponsor, was, as he always has been, active in that original centre of juvenile court inspiration. Too much praise cannot be given the Jewish organizations, and the settlement workers at Hull House and Chicago Commons for what is being accomplished in that great city. Judges Tuthill and Mack of the Chicago Juvenile Court, Mr. H. H. Hart of the Children's Aid Society of Chicago and Mr. Hurley visited Minnesota, rendering valuable service in securing the law to that state.

I was disappointed to find that in the state of Illinois outside of Chicago the juvenile court law was being much neglected, and in some of the large cities no effort had even been made to establish a juvenile court, and children were actually suffering the degradation of the jail or going uncorrected upon the streets, notwithstanding the law is in existence in Illinois. I found some prominent officials and business men in one or two of the large cities in Illinois who seemed to be ignorant of the fact that such possibilities in the way of laws for the protection of children existed in their state. I understand, however, that this condition is being rapidly remedied.

I trust without offense I may take as a sample of the police reports which I investigated in a number of cities that of the

city of Washington. It should be remembered that the officials are greatly handicapped for lack of more enlightened laws, such as compulsory education, child labor, etc., for the protection of children in our capital city. I may say that the police records of some other cities show a condition even worse than the city of Washington.

TOTAL NUMBER OF ARRESTS FOR STEALING (PETTY LARCENY) IN WASHINGTON CITY.

	White.	Colored.	Total.
Over 21 years of age	393	725	1,118
Under 21 years of age and over 16	157	251	408
Under 16 years of age	115	253	368

It appears that there were two-thirds as many minors as adults among all the actual arrests for larceny in Washington city last year. Out of a total of 776 arrests among minors for stealing there were 675 boys and 101 girls. In proportion to the city's population, there are more than twice as many so-called thieves among the minors as among the adults. Other figures, equally demonstrating the importance of enlightened preventative measures to save the citizenship of to-morrow could be shown by this report. For instance, there were 5,112 minors among the arrests last year and 23,359 adults (over 26,000 born in the United States — not minors). Eliminate the drunks vags and disorderlies from both adults and minors and take offenses against the property and person of others and we have:

ADULTS.

Total arrests		23,359
Among which there were for —		
Disorderly conduct	4,950	
Intoxication	3,128	
Intoxication and disorderly	1,732	
Vagrancy	1,796	—11,606
Among Adults.		
Total arrests for other offenses than drunks, vags and disorderlies		11,753

MINORS.

Between 16 and 21	3,460
Under 16	1,652
Total arrests of minors	5,112

Among which there were for disorderly conduct, intoxication and vagrancy a total of	1,927
Total arrests among minors for other offenses than disorderly conduct, intoxication and vagrancy	3,135

It will thus be seen that eliminating drunks, vags and disorderlies and counting serious offenses against the person and property, more than one-fourth of all arrests in the city of Washington last year were among its youth. I doubt if Congress has any knowledge of these facts. The juvenile court system offers a very efficient remedy to help correct such frightful conditions. Of course a compulsory education and child labor law are needed.

In considering police reports it should be borne in mind that there are a large number of "repeaters" or persons arrested more than once in the total number given. This may reach forty per cent among adults. I do not believe it will exceed ten per cent among minors.

Some conclusions from these reports now submitted may be subject to question or some explanation, although in the main I believe the following to be substantially true:

First: There are over one hundred thousand children, principally boys, brought to the criminal courts and jails in this country every year. In a large city of the north upon my trip I talked to a number of boys between 11 and 14 confined in a cell with three men. After getting the confidence of a 14-year old boy, who said he had been in jail fourteen times, he gave me the names of twenty-five boys in his neighborhood, who he said stole as much as he did but who had not been caught. An 11-year old boy gave me the names of five boys whom he said had stolen more than he had. With few exceptions, every boy I ever questioned in the city and county jails I have visited had from five to fifty boys in mind whom they knew to be guilty of offenses, which in their opinion were equally as bad as those for which they were incarcerated. Of course some of these statements may have been exaggerated, but I have allowed, I think, for some exaggeration. For instance, the boy who gave me twenty-five names said if he only could have had a longer time he was sure he could add many more to it, as he was certain that there

were at least fifty. It was a common thing for boys I met in jail to tell me that over half the boys they knew stole things, and not infrequently did boys tell me that all the boys they knew had stolen something at some time and would not hesitate to steal if they thought they would not get caught.

Second. The crime of larceny is alarmingly prevalent among the children of cities. In the country this spirit vents itself upon neighbor's apples and melons. I do not mean by this to make any alarming statements as to crime in this country, since I believe that a large part of the offenses of children in this respect do not betray a criminal instinct, but rather thoughtlessness, irresponsibility, love of fun, adventure, etc. Larceny is entirely too prevalent among children, however, and in proportion to population is far greater than among grown people. In the questions sent to the chiefs of police were the following:

"How many arrests over twenty-one years of age were made for the crime of larceny?"

"How many under twenty-one?"

In the great majority of cases where replies were made, or a personal inspection of the records made by myself, it appears that nearly as many actual arrests for larceny were made among boys and girls as among adults, and in a number of instances, more minors were arrested for larceny in the course of a year than adults. In proportion to population as between adults and minors there are easily twice as many minors as adults arrested every year for stealing.

Third: At least one-half of the arrests among adults are booked as drunks, disorderlies and vags. It follows that most people arrested in the city are the weaklings who are the victims of their own vices and bad habits; therefore the importance of guarding the youth of our country against those habits which destroy manhood.

Fourth: All the police officials answering the query favored the juvenile court and probation system and opposed the jail as a proper means of correction for children offenders.

Fifth: With one exception they all favor a law making parents responsible for the moral faults of children, and emphati-

cally declare it would be a great help to the police department in dealing with crime among the youth of the city.

Sixth: All of them favor laws forbidding sending children to saloons or other evil places. In nearly every case they use the term "very dangerous," many of them adding that a child's life is more or less one of imitation, depending upon the example of others outside of as well as in the home.

"I think a man who sent a child to a saloon ought to be sentenced to jail for six months," said the chief of one large town.

Another says:

"Such parents who send them and others who let them enter saloons for any purpose should be vigorously prosecuted."

Seventh: The majority of the reports received declare that boys when arrested are incarcerated in jail, but as indicating some pride in modern methods an explanation is generally given that they are now separated or in the woman's department, although in quite a number of cities and towns it is freely admitted they are subject to the jail and much that is bad influence.

Eighth: With two or three exceptions out of the total reports received it is admitted that no cases were brought against adults for selling cigarettes or liquor to minors. Considering the frequent complaints from police departments against boys smoking cigarettes, it is evident that these laws are not enforced.

Ninth: Most of the reports in which the question is answered declare that the boys of the city cause the police a great deal of trouble.

Tenth: The reports seem to be quite evenly divided as to the opinion of the police department in the increase or decrease of crime among the youth of the city. Here is an answer quite similar to that found in a number of reports:

"I think crime is increasing among the young people, caused, I think, by parents giving their children too much freedom. The girls are on the street too much after dark alone and the parents let them stay out too late at night."

I note with a great deal of pleasure that the opinions declaring a decrease in crime among the youth come from the

cities of those states having juvenile laws, although, as observed by Chief O'Neil of Chicago:

"The juvenile court has increased the number of arrests of juveniles because of the interest taken in the young."

And as said by the chief of another city:

"This increase of arrests among juvenile offenders is caused by a stricter enforcement of the laws and because of the better care during the last two years (juvenile court in force) and not because of any increase in crime."

In another city having the juvenile court law the chief writes:

"The decrease in juvenile offenses is due also to better playgrounds in the city where children can play without assembling on the street corners."

A number of the chiefs of police refer with enthusiasm to adult responsibility as a means of decreasing crime among the children and also to a strict enforcement of the compulsory education law and the care given by the probation officers of the juvenile court.

The chief of police of a city having the juvenile court attributes the decrease in juvenile offenses in his city in the last two years to a "more vigorous enforcement of the curfew law and an improvement of the old conditions."

One chief of police of a town of thirty thousand writes:

"For some time it has seemed to me that the drink evil and the social evil is on the increase. The cheap dance halls, euchre parties, bad literature and theatres are responsible to a great extent."

Chief of Police Knapp of Toledo, Ohio, has sent me a very interesting report. He attributes the decrease in juvenile offenses in Toledo to the newsboys' association under the direction of Mr. Gunckle, who has organized the boys and taught them to govern themselves. He shows what the personal influence of one good man can do for a city in dealing with its youth. Chief Knapp voices the following opinion of a number of chiefs:

"In my opinion careless parents, cheap theatres, lack of employment, especially during vacation seasons, pool rooms and

cigar stores, where young boys gather with the consent of their parents, play pool and exchange stories, are some of the principal causes of trouble among the young."

With a number of other chiefs he also favors raising the age limit from sixteen to eighteen or twenty and applying probation to first offenders among adults. Chief Knapp is an enthusiastic supporter of the juvenile court. He says:

"My reason for favoring the juvenile court is that it takes the young incorrigibles away from the real atmosphere of the police court and places them in the hands of people who have the best interests of the young at heart, that they may be treated with less formality and less dignity than surrounds a court of justice and with more sympathy and love."

He evidently believes in the kind of firmness that commands respect and not the kind that produces hate.

I feel certain that my own investigations show a substantial decrease in the more serious offenses among juveniles in every city where the juvenile court has been in operation for any length of time.

The juvenile court and its probation methods are attracting much attention in England, Europe, Japan and Australia. Inquiries and investigators have come to most of the leading courts of this character from such sources.

In conclusion let me emphasize the importance of the administrative work in the juvenile court. We are to be congratulated upon the progress made in the way of legislation, but we must now look to the enforcement of laws and obtaining the best results through wise, patient, painstaking effort. There must be co-operation between the home, the school, the church and the state in the interest of the child. The police department can greatly help by placing in those neighborhoods containing many children, kindly, intelligent and tactful officers. We have found this to be a wonderful help in Denver, and I have known of an entire neighborhood to become perfectly law abiding by a change of policemen. We must recognize the sociological side of this problem in dealing with children. Those entrusted with power cannot be too careful in the selection of officials who deal with children. They must be selected because of their peculiar

fitness for the work if the best results are to be obtained. Those engaged in such work should constantly endeavor to improve themselves and increase their own powers for usefulness, for the noblest and best work of the citizen is the value he renders society and the help he may be to its men and women, and the best period for such help is the period of childhood and adolescense, when character is plastic and can be moulded as clay in the potter's hands.

THE CHILD OF THE JUVENILE COURT.

BY ALICE B. MONTGOMERY, PITTSBURG.

The child of the Juvenile Court is no new nineteenth century wonder. He has always been. Way back in the ninth century Charlemagne became personally acquainted with him. One of his acts recognizing the importance of the child was a law, compelling him to be educated. From that time down to the present day he has been more or less in evidence. But the all important question is, "Who is he to-day?"

He is simply a child, who has come into Court, before he has reached the magic age of sixteen years. Then, according to law, within a few hours, he is changed from a child to a man and comes under the adult law. The law is a mysterious power, pervading the affairs of modern society, misunderstood and badly interpreted by those who execute it, less understood and worse framed by those who make it. This is not the fault of any one in particular but the outgrowth of an ever-increasing desire of mankind to advance toward higher ideals of living, but ignorant of the direct route by which to climb. Step by step the heights are being reached. Sometimes the steps vary greatly in length; sometimes it seems as though they were backward rather than forward. But history shows us that we are nearing the goal, however far it may still be distant. For ages, the Criminal Law has been expending the greater part of its energy at the wrong end of human life. It only recognized the individual as a subject for attention, when his habits of life had become fixed. Society is slow to change old ways for new.

The child of the Juvenile Court varies in age from the infant in swaddling clothes to the youth of sixteen. He is normal and abnormal. He is good and bad. He is bright and dull. He is independent and dependent. He is foreign and domestic. He is lame, halt and blind. He is hearty and sickly. He is strong and weak. He is lovable and unlovable. He is rich and poor. He is the victim of society and of society's laws. He is often held to blame for that which is his misfortune rather than his fault.

The law says that, "The child of the Juvenile Court is any child who is dependent, neglected, incorrigible or delinquent." With his appearance in the Court all theories are dissipated. What the child had seemed to be, looked at in the light of the imagination, changes, and he looks very different in the light of actual, concrete reality. To describe him accurately it would be necessary to give a description of each individual. No classification will be satisfactory that includes more than one child in a class. It is true, we can select some prominent traits and attempt to say, to this type belongs John or Susan; but as soon as we do this and begin to explain them, we meet, at the very first question, with a difference which throws John out of the class in which we have placed Susan. The only classification that we are safe in making is that they are all helpless children, in need of love and encouragement. John is a delinquent of long standing, although he is under sixteen years of age. He has so far advanced in his career, that his record shows that he has been arrested many times; possibly he has spent time in a Reformatory, and yet, he is not a child in whom all good instincts are dead. He is what he is, not through his fault, but through his misfortune. He is the extreme type. We can pass from him up through all shades and degrees of unfortunate conditions, till we reach the dependent, helpless babe, thrown upon the Juvenile Court by varying circumstances.

Yet these children are all alike in this. Each has an immortal soul to save, a career to direct in right channels, a destiny to work out along the paths of righteousness. The child is a waif that is drifting among life's breakers, a human atom that has little in itself by which to be recognized, which must be brought back to the semblance of the Creator. He is the Child which

Christ took and placed in the midst of His disciples and said, "Unless ye become as one of these, ye cannot enter into the Kingdom of Heaven." If the great Teacher had such confidence in the purity and perfection of the little child, ought we to be discouraged if he does not yield at once to the influences for good that are reaching out to save him?

Unrestrained, the child is a menace to liberty, a menace to freedom, a menace to progress, a menace to the perpetuation of republican form of government. No government can remain a "government of the people, for the people and by the people," which is not founded and maintained in the purity and strength of the individual citizen. If the source of supply is not kept pure and unsullied, disaster must be the inevitable result.

In the child of the Juvenile Court there are endless possibilities for good or evil. His numbers are so great that he must be considered in all economic questions bearing upon the good of society. Mankind is entitled to benefit by the best that is in every sentient being. No man lives for himself alone. If possibilities for good are in a child, they must be brought out for the sake, first of the child, second, for the sake of society, that all may profit. If the possibilities of the child are for evil, how infinitely more important that we should meet these possibilities in such a way as to turn them from evil into good. Evil unchecked in the heart of the child, ruins the individual. This alone is a serious enough question, without considering its effect upon society at large, but we know that the influence of one evil life adds greatly to the sum of the world's misery and unhappiness.

Who is the child of the Juvenile Court? It may be your boy or girl. It may be any and everybody's boy or girl. It is a child to be taken care of for the good of the state.

The child becomes a charge of the Juvenile Court, because he exercises in wrong channels the natural activity which is inherent in him. The young of all forms of life seek physical development in active energy, the child's natural propensity is play. When this proceeds along natural, free and untrammeled lines, healthy growth is the result. When it is switched into obstructed channels, it is called malicious mischief. The child on the village green pursues his game with joy unconfined; but

let him toss his ball in the city street and perchance hit a passer-by, or break a neighboring window, and the child at play becomes a criminal, a breaker of a city ordinance, or a Juvenile Court child charged with malicious mischief. It is but reasonable to ask that the city child have the same chance that the village child has, namely, a place in which to play where he will not break ordinances and windows. The city must recognize this fact. As cities cannot exist without the family, means must be taken by the city to enable the family to develop along common, everyday lines of growth.

The so-called mischievous child would cease to be such, if proper means were provided to give an outlet to his inherent activities. Play is childhood's inheritance. If this inheritance is taken away the results must be evil. The child coming from unhealthy environments must of necessity be unhealthy. Is it fair for us to attempt to hold a child responsible for his conformity to his environments? Most emphatically, no! Environment has much to do with what the Juvenile Court child is.

When the probation officer asks a child for the reason why, invariably the answer is that the other fellow got him to do it. No matter what the offence may be, the answer, to begin with, is one of yielding to temptation. In order that we may understand temptation, we must be able to put ourselves in the place of the tempted. This we can seldom do. To understand why the hungry child becomes a thief, we must be hungry. We must know what it is to want that which we have not. Few people can do this; many are ready to condemn without stopping to make the attempt. Those who lead sheltered lives know nothing of temptation, know nothing of the struggle which is carried on before the fatal yielding comes. Oh! that this phase of humanity might be more clearly understood! If it could be, how much better the adult criminal would fare at the hands of the world, to say nothing of the infant offender! If only every child could be born into a good home with a good father and mother, a good grandfather and grandmother, and so on backward, the number of unfortunate children would shrink to the minimum. Why should we expect the child of a bad father to be good? Or, why

should we expect the daughter of an evil mother to be good? That they are, is a wonder.

On this subject of parentage and marriage society is asleep. In no other affairs of life will it sit quietly down and allow like things to be done. The ignorant, untrained, unlearned boy and girl fall in love. Having satisfied certain conditions of age, and complied with other forms, they are granted a license to found a home for rearing children and educating members of society, to play their parts as citizens. No investigation is made as to the fitness of the contracting parties to fulfill, even in the most limited way, the condition of the contract they are about to enter into. And worst of all the sanction of holy religion is granted to this preposterous contract and solemn prayer offered in which God is asked to bless this unholy and impossible performance. What! Found a home on such a foundation? As well hope to build the material home on a bed of quicksand. Why should not the state protect itself against these incompetent contracting parties? It protects itself against the incompetent engineer, who might run a railroad train; it protects itself against the incompetent pilot who might hold in his hand the lives of a few people on board a ship. These must obtain a license, as must the parties, who wish to marry. But look at the difference in the test applied before the license is granted! A thousand and one exacting conditions must be complied with, before permission will be granted to do the work. But the state says to the seeker for the permission to marry, your knowledge of the duties, which you are about to take upon you does not matter. You are so old, you have the consent of your legal guardians, go ahead and enter upon the most important duty of life. You know nothing of what you are about to do, but go ahead. Trust to chance to found a home from which will come forth strong members of society. Who ever heard of the man being asked if he knows anything of his coming duties of husband or fatherhood, or the woman, if she knows anything about the duties of a wife, or the responsibilities of motherhood? The world needs, and needs badly, schools for the training of parents far more than parental schools for children of ignorant parents. The child driven to school so that the mother may be rid of him at home, becomes the truant

from both school and home, and eventually the child of the Juvenile Court.

Nevertheless, with all his good qualities, and with all his bad qualities, the child of the Juvenile Court is father of the coming race. He is society's own and cannot be dismissed by any careless attention, that leaves him to his own devices to win out. The old way of dealing with this element has gone never to return. The new way must be met. Ought we not to make the most of it for the sake of unfortunate childhood?

NECESSITY FOR THE LAWYER IN THE JUVENILE COURT.

BY T. D. HURLEY.

As the name implies, the Juvenile Court is a part of the judicial system of the State. In most states it is a branch of some other existing court. In some jurisdictions it is supposed to cover the probation system only, and in others it is a distinct court and building, where all cases pertaining to children are heard.

In Illinois where a Juvenile Court exists it is understood to mean that all cases of truant, neglected, dependent and delinquent children are heard in the Circuit Court, that court being a court of original, inherent and unlimited jurisdiction. The judges of the Circuit Court in counties having a population of 500,000 are directed to assign one of their number to hear and dispose of all children's cases that are transferred from the police or justice courts, or that first originate in the Circuit Court on petition.

It is generally understood and accepted as true that the Juvenile Court, as such, is a distinct and separate court. Such, however, is not the case; it is simply a branch of the Circuit Court. The chancery side of this court had all of the jurisdiction that was conferred upon it by the Juvenile Court law before this latter law was enacted. The Juvenile Court deals with the person of the child only, leaving the property to be cared for by some other Court.

The law has ever been solicitous in regard to the child's property, and ample provisions are made for the care and treatment of children having property rights. Foster homes and institutions are carefully selected where the child may be reared and educated. Parents and guardians of the child are compelled at all times to treat the child in a proper manner. To enforce the above provisions there are to be found in the statute books of the various states laws for the regulation and custody of children as between husband and wife; care and support of children by those who stand in loco parentis; laws preventing cruelty to children; the employment of children; the sale of tobacco and other injurious articles to children; abandonment of children; indenture of children; apprenticeship of children; adoption of children; — all relating to the property of the child or the punishment of the parent or custodian or guardian for any offence they may commit towards the child. Especially are the laws solicitous in regard to the management and control of the child's property. Persons dealing with the child's property without first obtaining an order of court, make themselves liable to severe penalties. Even after obtaining power and authority of the court he acts only as the officer of the court, and not as an individual. He is required from time to time to make complete reports as to his acts — no matter how insignificant or small the estate may be, nevertheless the court takes cognizance of it and sees that it is administered for the best interests of the child. All these procedures are conducted in the various probate, county, surrogate and chancery courts by a member of the legal profession, on the theory that the child's property is essential to the child's welfare and that it is necessary and essential that all legal proceedings should be in strict accordance with the law.

In the past the person of the child was not taken cognizance of by the court unless there was an estate, and then the court very guardedly cared for the maintenance and education and welfare of the child. Property seems to have been uppermost in the minds of all law makers throughout the entire country. Thousands of volumes of legal lore have been written on the property rights of the child, but little, if anything, is said of the person of the child.

Now that the state has come forward and assumed the responsibility not only of the property of the child but also of its person, is it not advisable that we acquaint ourselves with the laws, rules, regulations and power of the court that is to have charge of the case? It is certainly essential that a practitioner in any court first understand fully the procedure, jurisdiction and power of the court. So that before practicing in the Juvenile Court it would seem advisable that we first acquaint ourselves with the full meaning of the term "Juvenile Court."

Referring to the Juvenile Court law of Illinois we find that circuit and county courts have original and exclusive jurisdiction in cases of neglected, dependent and delinquent children. A petition must be filed in accordance with the wording of the statute; summons must be served and notice given to the parent or custodian of the child at least twenty-four hours before the case is heard, otherwise the court will not acquire jurisdiction; in addition to the causes of dependency or delinquency, the petition should also state the names of the father and mother, if known, and guardian, if any there be. If the father and the mother are dead that fact should be stated, and the names inserted, if known to the officer. The petition should also state if the parent or guardian is or is not a fit person to have the custody of such child. Facts should be inserted showing wherein said parent or parents are unfit, or if the parents are fit that they consent to the child being found dependent. Should the officer be unable to get any of these facts he should insert in the petition a statement to the effect that after diligent inquiry, (stating facts on which his inquiries were based) he was unable to procure the same. Facts and not conclusions or opinions, should be stated. Cases should be prepared so that the judge will have the facts before him when the case is heard; hearsay statements should not be relied upon. Witnesses should be procured so that they may testify to the facts as alleged in the petition. The practice in the Illinois Juvenile Court is to file a history of the case which shows the essential facts. The history should contain the names and addresses of the child's parents, the religion, nationality and name of school where the child had been in attendance; the character of the neighborhood; the conditions of

the home, and the reputation of the family should be given. This history in Illinois is not jurisdictional, but is provided for by rule of the court.

The law has definitely fixed the definition of truancy, dependency and delinquency; and unless one or more of these causes is alleged and proven the child cannot be adjudicated a dependent or delinquent. Proof without allegation will not suffice any more than averment without proof. Children and parents have constitutional rights and they must be observed. We have on the Illinois statute books 70 pages of laws relating to children. Industrial school laws; manual training school laws; parental school laws; juvenile court laws; state training school for girls' laws; training school for boys' laws; laws relating to apprenticeship, adoption, various criminal sections, and others too numerous to mention. No doubt similar laws exist in practically every state of the Union.

The contention has been made from time to time that a lawyer should not appear to plead the case. The fact remains that the Juvenile Court law is the result of mature thought on the part of a lawyer. The general idea of the law may have been prompted by public opinion, but it remained for a lawyer to draft the law, and after it became a law to put it in force and effect. No person not a lawyer would pretend to manage or conduct a minor's estate, either in the Probate Court or a court of chancery; no matter how small the estate may be letters of guardianship must be prepared by the legal adviser. Bonds must be secured; reports made; accounts required. Final settlements are provided for by the statute in the interests of the child's property, on the theory that by preserving the child's property suitable provision may be made therefrom for the care of the person and education of the child. Such care being required by the statute in reference to the child's property, is it not reasonable to ask, "Why should not like care be required in reference to the person of the child?"

The proceedings of the Juvenile Court, in many cases may fix the status of the child for life, and certainly they should follow the forms required by law. How can the statute be complied with and requirements of the law fulfilled, by a person

— though a probation officer if you will, prompted by highest of motives, interested solely in the welfare of the child, looking only for the interests of the child and the parent, but having no legal conception of the statute, who has never read law, who cannot point out the difference between the various acts relating to children?

In my humble opinion all legal documents relating to children's cases should be prepared by a trained lawyer, so that the proceedings when concluded would result in a valid judgment. The Supreme Court of Illinois has repeatedly passed on this question, and as late as 1900 in the case of Watts vs. Dull, in 184th Illinois, page 86, in relation to the adoption of children the court said:

> "The adoption act being in derogation of the common law must be strictly construed, and to sustain proceedings thereunder the jurisdiction of the lower court must affirmatively appear of record, as nothing can be construed in aid of it.
>
> Second: A child adopted under the provisions of the statute cannot inherit from the adoptive parents unless the requirements of the statute are strictly followed in the adoption proceedings."

It will thus appear that if the proceedings of the Juvenile Court were not regular and in strict conformity with the statute under which the child is found dependent and delinquent, and that such facts did not appear in the record, that the judgment of the Juvenile Court will not only be voidable but void, and that any adoption proceedings based on such Juvenile Court procedure will be absolutely void.

There has been a popular outcry throughout the country, insisting that the proceedings in the Juvenile Court should be informal. Such is the wording of the Juvenile Court laws of various states, however, this idea should not be carried too far. God, in his goodness and mercy, blessed parents with children, and before the court severs the relations of parent and child, take the child from its home, and transfer it to a foster home or to an institution, greatest care should be exercised.

In conclusion, I contend that the same care, the same attention, the same consideration should be accorded the person of the child as is accorded the child's property. There is more at stake when the child is taken from its parents, taken from its own relatives, than when the property of the child is affected. If a lawyer is essential in the care of a child's property, then the lawyer is doubly essential in the care of the person of the child.

SOME PHASES OF THE PROBATION WORK OF THE JUVENILE COURT.

[Based wholly on the situation in Chicago.]

BY HENRY D. THURSTON, CHICAGO.

To one visiting the Juvenile Court for the first time the scene presented is one that appeals strongly to the imagination. In a large city like Chicago, for example, here in a continuous stream come boys and girls, fathers and mothers, neighbors, friends, teachers, social workers, policemen and Probation Officers to explain to the Judge various tangles in the lives of the children. Here on any Court day are laid bare some of the faults of nearly every institution of society — the family, the school, the political administration of the city, the industrial order, and sometimes even of the church. And the children are the victims. In most of the cases, the best of us are forced to admit that the same social conditions that bring Antonio and Rachel here, would also have brought our own Bob and Charlotte.

One who has been engaged in school work cannot help but compare the Juvenile Court procedure to that which takes place in a large school building, where children are sent from various rooms by the teachers to the principal's office for admonition, advice and correction; but here, as in the school, the work that can be done by the Judge is very slight compared with what must be done when the children return to their homes on probation, or

are taken from those homes and put into some other environment. Just as being sent to the principal's office will be of little effect upon the school boys if the work of the teachers in the various rooms, both before and after the children are sent to the office, is inefficient, so in the Juvenile Court, the work of the judge, howsoever wise, kindly and humane he may be, can have little effect if the work of the probation officers and institutions that are to take charge of the children is inefficient. The best work of the school principal is not in a masterly handling of the boys and girls who are sent to the office, but in such a choice and training of teachers that fewer children need to be sent there. Similarly the main business of society, through the agency of the Juvenile Court, is not merely with the children who find their unfortunate way thither, but with the causes impelling their wayward steps. The Juvenile Court will prove but a social opiate unless the present massing of juvenile misfortune in one place stimulates us to more successful efforts to remove the causes of this misfortune.'

MAGNITUDE OF THE WORK OF THE PROBATION OFFICERS.

I have not gathered statistics of the number of children under each probation officer in other large cities, but as the work grows older the present number will undoubtedly tend strongly to increase. In Chicago, however, where the Court has been established since 1899, the number of children under each probation officer who has charge of a district of the city has grown until the present average is at least 150, and in some cases the number reaches 225. Such numbers tend to exhaust the vitality of the officers and to make the social results unsatisfactory. Here again a little comparison with the work of a well organized school may be suggestive. A teacher who has charge of 50 children for five hours in the day in one room is thought by the best school authorities to be too heavily taxed. If this is so, it is not unreasonable to conclude that, so far as our school experience guides us, the probation officer, who not only has charge of the children five hours a day, and five days in the week and forty weeks in the year, but during all the hours of all the days of the year, should not have a larger number of children in her care than the public

school teacher. Especially is this so when we remember that the children in the care of the probation officer are not normal children in their experiences, but each one is in some special need of the personal help and interest and power of the probation officer. A faulty social condition must be dealt with in the case of each child. Not only so, but instead of all being in one place at one time, they are scattered all over a large territory which necessitates the loss of a great deal of time in travel. A mere statement of the case suggests one of the most fundamental problems, from an administrative point of view, in connection with the Juvenile Court work in any large city. How to relieve the congestion of work which is thrown upon the probation officer is as yet unsolved. Two possible remedies suggest themselves:

First, that the number of the probation officers shall be increased to meet the increasing need; but here the question of expense at once comes up; either these officers must be paid for by private contribution or by public appropriation. The first of these sources of revenue is both inadequate and uncertain. The second is unlikely to be adequate at present because the public authorities are as yet not awake to the magnitude of the need. Their thought is that schools, churches, homes, and other institutions are already nearly adequate to deal with the situation, and that appropriations large enough to give each probation officer about fifty children would be an extravagant and wasteful use of the public money. The second method of relief is in the appointment of large numbers of volunteer probation officers, from the best men and women of the city, who shall care for one to three children under the general direction of the regular probation officers. At least a thousand such officers are needed in Chicago at the present moment.

Considered abstractly, this plan seems by far more practical at the present time. We are told that it is working admirably in Indianapolis. Most of us have yet before us the task of "catching the hare." And when caught most of these volunteer probation officers will need instruction, encouragement, and experience in the best methods of dealing with the wards of the Court. In many cases they become discouraged and give up. It may safely be anticipated that efficient workers from this direction must be

"hand picked." Certain it is that by one method or the other, or by a combination of the two, the magnitude of the work of the regular probation officer must not be allowed to increase unduly, or from sheer weight of the burden the effectiveness of their work is bound to break down.

One further numerical statement of this danger may be made from the experience of the Chicago Juvenile Court. During the six years since it was established up to July 8, 1905, 16,399 cases have come before the judge, and during one day recently 125 cases were heard. Of this number such a large percentage of the children were paroled that this one day's increase in the probationary work ought to be met by the appointment of a new probation officer, and yet, at the present moment when the probation officers of Chicago are being taken over from private pay to county pay, the largest number that we dare ask for is twenty probation officers and one chief probation officer.

PROBATION WORK IN RELATION TO SCHOOLS.

The magnitude of the probation work, as well as the consideration of causes of juvenile dependency and delinquency, suggests that the institutions which we already have should be made to bear more of the burden. As a rule, children come into the Juvenile Courts because of the failure of some one or more of our institutions to deal fairly with the child. It becomes therefore the duty of all those interested in the Juvenile Court to inquire earnestly and persistently what can be done by the public school both to prevent dependency and delinquency of children, and to aid in the work of recovery. When looked at from the point of view of the Juvenile Court it is difficult to see any reason why at least some of the schools in our large cities are not in session all day, every day of the week, and every week in the year. If it were possible for the probation officers to make arrangements with school authorities to keep Johnnie and Tommy, Antonio and Patrick at some form of industrial training or domestic science or physical exercise during an extra two or three hours of each afternoon, the likelihood that these boys would get into trouble and come again before the Juvenile Court would be very

much lessend. It is difficult to see how the duty of Boards of Education to open the doors of at least certain schools in the most congested districts for more hours in the day, can much longer be neglected, and this for the sake of public economy in dealing with juvenile delinquency as well as for the sake of the child itself. Furthermore it is the common testimony of probation officers that many cases of truancy and delinquency of children resulting from this truancy could be prevented if our schools were sufficiently attractive to children so that they would stay in them. From the point of view of the delinquent boy, the enrichment of our school work must not fail because of the current sneer against "fads." The case of the little Italian boy, Pedro, in a Chicago school, whom wild horses could hardly drag to school so long as nothing but the "Three R's" were given him to do, but who came delightedly and staid day after day when the tedium of the school for him was relieved by giving him the task of sharpening lead pencils for an hour or two a day, is a forcible argument for daily and varied manual training, especially in all the lower grades of our schools. Judge Lindsey's story of the boy who asked why he could not get an education by learning to be a plumber is still a poser for the educational authorities.

Merely as a means of dealing with juvenile delinquency, if for no other reason, I would like to see the experiment of such an afternoon extension of the public school work as has been above suggested in several of our large cities. There is little doubt in my mind, that rightly managed such an extension will be found to fill a need as genuine in the afternoon of the ordinary school day and on Saturdays, as the vacation schools have already proved themselves to be in the summer vacation of the regular schools.

PROBATION WORK IN RELATION TO PLAY GROUNDS.

What has just been said respecting the extension of the school may be said with equal truth respecting the extension of play grounds. The city boy gets into trouble when he has nothing else to do. It is perfectly clear, therefore, that it is the duty of those who have him in charge to see to it that he has a chance to do something positively helpful to himself and harmless to the

community during all his waking hours. The movement for the establishment of adequate play grounds for all the children of our large cities is, from this point of view, one of the most direct and helpful means of lessening the work of the probation officers of the Juvenile Court. Unfortunately, these play grounds are not yet adequate in number, but they should be pushed by all well meaning citizens until they are adequate. It should be possible for every probation officer in every large city to have an understanding, not only with school authorities, but with play ground authorities, that Johnnie is to be under the watchful eye of the play ground instructor, during certain hours of certain days. Mr. E. B. DeGroat, director of play grounds in all the Field Houses, recently erected by the South Park Commissioners in Chicago, is already interested in this matter and has promised to do all he can to secure the object above stated.

PROBATION WORK AS RELATED TO CHARITIES, VISITING NURSES, PROTECTIVE AGENCIES, LAW AND ORDER LEAGUE, ETC.

Here again, as in relation to school and play grounds, the work of the probation officer can be greatly aided, both by the extension of and better co-operation with other agencies already at work in the city. In Chicago one of the heaviest drains upon the strength and resources of the probation officer comes from work in connection with families that need charitable assistance, where the parents instead of the children are practically on probation. In such cases it would seem that the charity workers should, in some way, be given authority of probation officers by the Court, in order that the families may be dealt with as effectively as possible without throwing the burden on the probation officer proper. At present, the objection made in Chicago to the removal of this kind of burden from the probation officers to the Bureau of Charities is, that these families cannot be made to follow the suggestions of the charity workers which are necessary for the welfare of themselves and their children without an order of Court. This brings the children under the jurisdiction of the Court as dependants. The problem, nevertheless, is primarily one belonging rather to charity administration than to the probation officer. It

can be best met, it seems to me, not by making the probation officer over into a charity worker, but by giving the charity worker the authority of the probation officer in those particular cases where such authority is needed. As to the other organizations mentioned, the most efficient possible co-operation between them and the probation officer is necessary in order, at every point, to relieve this officer from work that does not properly belong to him and which can perhaps be done much more efficiently by other persons.

PROBATION WORK IN RELATION TO JUVENILE MORALITY.

All teachers, parents, and social workers have always been more or less aware of the problem of juvenile morality, of the problem of the delinquent girl as well as of the delinquent boy, but now that we are coming to mass the juvenile delinquency in each of the large cities in one room and before one man, it is becoming evident to him, as to no other person possibly in the whole city, that the problem of sexual morality among the boys and girls is a much greater one than even the experienced have commonly supposed. How to deal with this question is as yet an unsolved problem. It is, of course, necessary to bear in mind the reality of psychological suggestion and to avoid in our efforts to do good the suggestion of evil to those who are already good. This much, at least, seems clear, that it is the duty of the judge and probation officers of the Juvenile Court to stimulate, wherever possible, the intelligence and interest of parents and teachers, and of all persons having the care of children to such a degree that they may do all in their power to protect children from evil influences on the one side, and to build up in them a positive knowledge and ideal of the most sacred facts of their physical lives on the other. The lack of care of children by parents of ordinary intelligence, and by teachers and even churches in many concrete instances in Chicago, has been followed by such appalling results that I am forced to the conviction that, in spite of the attendant dangers, a more frank and thorough knowledge and discussion of this question by those who have charge of young people is a necessity.

EXTENSION OF THE PROBATION WORK VS. ENLARGEMENT OF INSTITUTIONS.

All the administrative problems of the Juvenile Court and the probation work focus in a two-fold problem. The proper extension and perfection of the probation work on the one hand, and the true extent and variety of the institutional care of children on the other.

In Chicago, during the last six years we have built a Parental School for boys on the cottage plan; we have separated the juvenile delinquents from the adults in the City House of Correction, and have given the boys in this institution regular school work and good manual training in what is called the John Worthy School; the State of Illinois has, within the present month, formally opened a great farm and educational institution for delinquent boys at St. Charles; and many other private or semi-private industrial and training schools in which boys and girls are practically confined have been built up or extended during this time; and yet at the present moment all of these institutions are crowded to their doors and the judge of the Juvenile Court is at his wits' end from one Juvenile Court day to the other to find places enough in institutions to take care of the delinquent boys and girls that are brought before him. The pressure to remove children from their homes was perhaps never greater than it is to-day.

I have little doubt if our present institutions were doubled within the next four years that a willing judge would be able to fill them all with boys and girls from Chicago, and yet feel little relief from the daily pressure of others whom interested persons would urge him to send away.

On both sides then, that of the probation work and that of the institutional care of the children, the pressure upon the Juvenile Court is intense. There is some danger, it seems to me, that the people generally may come to look upon the Juvenile Court as an easy means of relief for family, neighborhood, school, civic and church inefficiency and failure in the care of children. The Juvenile Court judge must be a vigorous "Mrs. Partington" indeed to succeed in mopping up the rising tide of juvenile unfortunates that pour in upon him.

There seems to me no ultimate relief in the direction of indefinite enlargement of institutions. I do not think we should cease effort in this direction, but I believe that we shall be forced to give far more attention and appropriate many times more money to the extension and perfection of the probation system and the various preventive agencies connected therewith. There must be such an enlargement and perfection of all the preventive work, and such an increase in the efficiency of the probational work that the largest possible number of children shall be taken care of in their own home and neighborhood environment. The one supreme advantage that the institution has is the control of the child during the whole twenty-four hours. And the probational care of the children, to be effective in competition with the institutions, must be so extended, so complete, that by co-operation of home, school, play ground, church, volunteer probation officer, and probation officer proper that an elastic but genuine supervision of the whole twenty-four hours of the child's life may be secured in his home environment. This may prove impracticable, but it is worth while to spend a few hundred thousand dollars in the attempt before we put indefinite millions more into the building of institutions.

In short, there should be, first, such an increase in the number of probation officers that not more than fifty to seventy-five children are in the care of one officer; second, at least the experiment of enriched and extended school facilities; third, the adequate provision of play ground facilities; and, finally, such a co-operation among probation officer, the home, the school, the play ground, and other institutions and persons involved, that it will be well nigh impossible for the boy or girl to get into trouble without attracting immediate attention. From the point of view, both of the child's welfare and of economy in public expense, I believe it will be more and more clearly seen that such an enlargement of effort in connection with the probational work, as over against the indefinite enlargement of institutions, is both desirable and practicable.

VI.

Care of the Sick.

THE PREVENTION OF DISEASE BY IMPROVED HOUSING AND SANITARY CONDITIONS.

BY NORMAN BRIDGE, M. D., LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA.

Disease is most prevalent among the poor, especially the very poor. This is due to their unhygienic lives; and much of this latter is represented by their unsanitary dwellings, by their needless exposure to some causes of disease, by lack of proper food, and by the debilitating personal habits of some of them.

The influences that are potent in causing these conditions are presumably not numerous and they are easily catalogued. First is bad ventilation of houses, especially in cold weather. Most of even the rich, whose coal bills do not need to terrify them, live with insufficient ventilation of their dwellings. More than 1,000 cubic feet of fresh air per hour for each person should enter the house for even fair ventilation. Not one house in a thousand in cold weather fulfills this condition, or a quarter of it, and hardly a single house among the poor, unless it is unavoidable by reason of cracks that cannot be stopped. The rule is to batten up every crack. Weather strips are wrongly supposed to be a necessity in every house in cold climates. If not weather strips, then rags, paper or old clothes are used — anything to keep out every current of fresh air.

The bad air causes disease in various ways, chiefly by first producing debility and lessened physiologic resisting power. Then easily follow colds, poor digestion and all its attendant ills; while the several infectious diseases develop most easily. The power of work is also impaired and so come lessened wages and a reduction of food and other comforts. The contagious diseases are always more prevalent as well as more fatal in cold weather, because the poison producing them is concentrated in unventilated

rooms, and the victims take in large doses thereof. It is safe to say that the breathing of bad air produces, directly and indirectly, more disease, especially among the poor, than all other influences combined.

Perhaps second in importance is the danger from disease germs coming in water, milk and other foods, and being expelled from the bodies of the sick. Of these the tuberculous and the typhoid germs are most important. Numerous epidemics of typhoid fever have been produced through food and water, and they were, by the light of modern knowledge, substantially all of them, avoidable.

The dust that rises from carpets, rugs and hangings in houses, is a prolific source of disease, especially of tuberculosis. Bacilli of tuberculosis in the sputum of the sick, and disease germs of other kinds and from other sources, lodge on these objects, chiefly the carpets and rugs, and, as dust, are thrown into the air by every footfall or movement of these things. Where the ventilation is abundant, as in the open houses of summer, the danger is least, but in the dwellings of the poor in cold weather there is no ventilation, and this cause of disease has its most sweeping and fatal effects. Tuberculosis is enormously prevalent. Numerous cases often originate from a single house where a bad case has been harbored. One after another the susceptible occupants of the house take the disease, each having inhaled the bacilli left by his predecessor, and each in turn leaving his own contribution toward the destruction of those who come after him. And all this desolation results from the ignorance of the people.

Flies and mosquitoes often bring disease to people. Flies carry typhoid germs, on their tangled up feet, from infected excretions of the body to our food supply; they also distribute tuberculosis in similar ways; while malaria and yellow fever among the diseases are solely distributed by certain varieties of mosquitoes.

A fourth cause of disease is poor food, often poorly, even foolishly prepared; and too much stimulation. People mostly cook and otherwise prepare their foods for the pleasure of their taste, very little from considerations of digestibility and getting the greatest amount of nourishment out of them. So appetite is conserved, if not worshipped, while indigestion is brought on and

physical depreciation as a consequence. Thus, much sickness comes and lowering of the standard of vigor of the race. Vast quantities of stimulants (tea, coffee, tobacco and alcoholics) are taken for the same reason — because the people like the immediate effect of pleasure they produce, not for any lasting benefit, for there is none. Similarly they indulge in various other physical excesses for the immediate pleasure of them, and often to their permanent harm.

Great benefits in more comforts and less sickness would come to people by better housing and hygiene. The needed reforms are few in number and they are not expensive, but some of them are so radical in character as to appear to conservative minds as revolutionary.

The first reform to be thought of is not better houses, but better ventilation of the houses, such as they are, and especially of sleeping rooms. It matters, perhaps, little which of several methods of ventilation is resorted to; but a natural method for the poor is of cheap construction of houses with the main floor well above the ground and with numerous cracks and crannies for the admission of air. Plastering is not essential, board walls will do, even rather loose board walls. Weather strips are, as usually employed, an enemy of the race; the poverty that sometimes deprives us of them is life giving. No attempt should be made to keep the house heat above 60 or 65° F. People, young and old, can endure this easily when they are accustomed to it, and they should, as they easily can, learn to enjoy it. The usual amount of fuel may be used in cold weather, the lower temperature representing better ventilation. And the better air to breathe will enable the inmates to endure the lower temperature without discomfort. The only other provision necessary is, in the case of the weakly members of the family, rather more clothing of the person, especially of the feet and legs.

The sleeping rooms should never be closed against the admission of fresh air. To say the night is cold is never a reason for shutting out all ventilation through openings of the windows. Artificial heat is not needed in the sleeping rooms of well people, but is usually a harm. It is perfectly possible to fix any well person in bed so that he can sleep in comfort in a cold room, even

with zero temperature. If the bed-clothes are scanty a few newspapers laid between the blankets will take the place of quilts and keep the sleeper warm.

I know it will be said by some critics that such a program as this is cruel and impracticable, but the success of the modern treatment of tuberculosis by the out-door, pure air management, has shown that it is easy for delicate patients to endure such measures, not merely with comfort, but with great benefit. And if a consumptive can do it, certainly it ought to be easy for the well to thrive upon it.

The bedroom air should be so pure always that, to the nostrils of a person coming in from out of doors, it will never seem stuffy, and over the faces of the sleepers the air should always be in gentle motion. The air about one's face should never be still — one should always be in a draught, never out of it. A draught does not produce colds — it prevents them.

Consumptives even sleep out of doors, and in tents with the flaps open, in zero weather, and with the greatest comfort and satisfaction. This has been done during the whole of the past winter in the colony of tuberculosis patients at Ottawa, Illinois. The only artificial heat the tents had was that of kerosene stoves while the patients were undressing for bed, and while they were dressing in the morning. The patients had the option of sleeping in houses, and elected to stay in their tents.

The houses of the people should be free from carpets, rugs, cloth hangings and upholstered furniture, so as to minimize the possibility of the distribution of dust poisons to the inmates. If the floors are covered at all, the material had better be of linoleum or something similar, and incapable of gathering dust. The best covering of all is good paint, renewed if possible every year. Nor does such absence of the customary so-called comforts in the house lessen perceptibly the real physical enjoyment of living within it; its chief disadvantage is in the violation of custom, otherwise fashion. But the fashion is growing to do without these disease spreading luxuries, as the cult of better ventilation and out-door life, and sleeping out of doors, is increasing rapidly among the most thoughtful. So fast is this fashion spreading that it is likely, by its benefits to the physical lives of our people, to increase their

average longevity to such a degree that it will, in two decades, actually show in the census figures.

One so-called extravagance the poor man should have is screens for his windows and doors in summer time, against the flies and mosquitoes. The screens are more than paid for by the lessening annoyance, to say nothing of the protection against disease, which is a positive and demonstrated benefit. The prevention in the day time of the inoculation of his food with disease germs by the flies of summer, returns many fold the cost of the few inexpensive screens of wire or mosquito netting that cover the door and window openings; and fencing out the mosquitoes for the comfort of the night increases the sleep of the house occupants, to the great benefit of their health, temper, and working capacity.

That these insect pests distribute among the people at least four infectious diseases has been demonstrated beyond question; and there is strong reason to suspect that further investigation will show that still other diseases, that have long puzzled the pathologists, are disseminated in this way.

The average layman is almost wholly uninformed of the importance of fencing these insects out of the houses. There needs to be a concerted missionary movement of education in this direction, by those who know, in the interest of those who do not know. The relative trifling cost of this protection keeps thousands of families from enjoying benefits that cannot be counted in money, and nearly all of them spend every summer in needless, if not foolish indulgences, ten times as much as their mosquito netting would cost. Protection against flies and mosquitoes ought to be encouraged by law, and preached as a doctrine of sanitary morals, and as a part of personal religion.

The protection of milk and drinking water from typhoid and other poisons is less a part of house sanitation than of general sanitary interest to the community; but it is of the greatest possible importance. The purity of the water supply of lakes, rivers and wells, and the protection of milk cans from washings with contaminated water, have made a large chapter in all recent discussions of personal and public hygiene. Their importance can hardly be overestimated, but in general the poor rarely have the

means of protecting themselves from these dangers, except by boiling their water and milk before drinking them. A great gain would be made if all the people could know that these dangers often exist and that they can be avoided by so simple a means — only the milk should not be boiled, but heated to 170° F.; for the boiling point lessens its digestibility. Lately it has been discovered that a little metallic copper immersed in drinking water for a few hours destroys all the typhoid germs it may contain, without injury to the potability of the water. So here is a possible easy means of protection from typhoid poison. But it has its drawbacks, one of which is that, as it is so easy a remedy, it is likely to be forgotten at the very time it is most needed. Another fear is that it may lead to a relaxation in the general watchfulness over the water supply itself.

The health of the people would be improved by certain reforms in eating and drinking; but such reforms, like all reforms in the daily habits of people, are difficult of accomplishment.

Much of their food is poorly prepared by cooking and otherwise, whereby they get too little nutriment out of it, and with such effort of digestion as to impair the powers both of digestion and of life. Meat should be cooked with two definite objects in view: to kill parasites in its substance (as in trichinæ and tape worm), and to render the meat easy to comminute by chewing. But we often overcook our meats, even burn them, and render them tough and indigestible. The most nutritious meat is often the toughest and cheapest, like so-called "round steak." Such ought to form a large part of the meat diet of the poor, but it should be comminuted artificially. One of the most profitable implements in any house is a grinding machine for meat. Its cost is little, and its saving to the family in a household where it is used to the best advantage is every year many hundred percentum of its cost. It obviates the need of much chewing of meat; it prevents indigestion, and gives to the body the largest amount of the meat nutriment that is possible. It is substantially true that meat for all children should be mechanically ground for them — for children as a rule chew their meat little more than puppies do which is unprofitable as well as unhealthy.

Many families waste their soup bones, and deprive them-

selves thus of one of the most nutritious and digestible foods and one that is easily and inexpensively prepared. They fry ham and make it indigestible, when it could be made both palatable and digestible by boiling. They fry or boil hard their eggs, when they can be curdled more easily and made perfectly digestible. They eat fresh bread and hot biscuits to the harm of their stomachs and the waste of their substance, when stale bread has a better taste and is a perfect food. They laudably try to get good milk and then take pains to prevent it from souring, with the idea that souring spoils it for human use as food — they even feed it to the pigs. But the best people of our own South have long since demonstrated that sour, otherwise clabbered milk, is one of the best of foods, as well as one of the most palatable of them all.

But the betterment of the food and reduction in the stimulation of the people is a perennial subject for argument and exhortation. Progress is slow, if, indeed, there is progress, which there probably is; and plain and rational living, which means scientific living, must be advocated in season and out of season for the better health and greater happiness of the race.

But these reforms are insignificant in their demands by comparison with the need of more fresh air in the houses, especially the little houses with cramped rooms and mean quarters.

Other improvements in the dwellings of the poor that are greatly needed are: higher ceilings and more cubic feet of space for each occupant; more sunlight through more and better windows; improvements in chimneys, fireplaces and stoves so that there will be less carbonic oxide and other products of combustion for the inmates to breathe; fewer candles, lamps and gas jets for light, and more incandescent electric lamps, to lessen the contamination of the house air; more cheerful interiors and exteriors of dwellings. These considerations are important. But they lose nine-tenths of their urgency in the presence of good ventilation, and good ventilation is so many times more vital and health-giving than all of them together; and it is so universally absent in every house and time where it can, by any prejudice of fear, be shut out, that it stands to-day as the one want in dwellings and places of assembly, that is of paramount importance. With it, the stoves will draw better, the rooms will be found large

enough and the ceilings will be high enough, and the houses will have the best ornamentation of all, namely, better health and more vigor, fewer colds and more cheerfulness on the part of their occupants. It will be of less consequence whether the floor is above the earth or whether it *is* the earth.

There is a widespread intense fear among our people, rich and poor alike, of the baneful effects of fresh air, good ventilation and draughts, and especially of the cleanest and purest air of all, namely, the night air. With many of them it is more absorbing and abiding than their fear of sin and death, or of the great hereafter. This fear has been handed down from generation to generation like a truth that is sacred — but it is not a truth and it is not sacred, but a very vile and death breeding prejudice that can only be swept away by constant argument, example and insistance.

Of the other needs I have named, sunlight is the only one that ventilation cannot wholly substitute. Sunlight is health-giving and ought to enter every dwelling, but its chief value is in its power to destroy pathogenic microbes, and if the microbes are absent by exclusion of insects, the suppression of dust, the absence of sickness, and by good ventilation, then the sunlight is not vital, save for its effect on those who rarely or never go out of doors, but even to them it is incomparably less important than fresh air. Where there are coughing tuberculous patients, of course sunlight is in the highest degree desirable, and this is one of its greatest values in inclosures of all sorts; that is, to guard against tuberculosis in the house. But the average room in good houses can have sunshine but a short time any day, rarely enough to kill tubercle bacilli; the great benefit of daylight and sunlight are out of doors.

Thus the gospel of the best health and the least sickness, is out door air, and the daylight and sunlight of out of doors. In proportion as our houses bring these blessings within them are we well and wholesomely housed; in so far as they are shut out are we poorly housed. Our theory is wrong which holds that man is fortunate in proportion as he is able to cover himself with a tight house. The truth is that almost in proportion as he gets back

to nature in the open, or if you please back somewhat toward barbarism, does he have the best health and the longest life.

One of the pathetic facts is that when the rich man leaves his mansion and builds him a shack in the wilderness that he may have the greatest of earth's benefits it is called luxury; but when the poor man must live in a shack because he can have no other or supposedly better house, it is called hardship; and we are flooded with laments against the fate that compels innocent people, even children, to live in houses through whose cracks the winds of winter whistle and sprinkle snow on the beds of the sleepers.

As long as such heresies last the reforming philanthropist has work ahead of him. He may well devote his energy to a campaign of education against such foolishness. And he may remember for his soul's comfort that few greater services are ever done for any man than to show him that what he regards as some of his misfortunes are really his blessings.

THE ACTUAL CARE OF THE SICK IN HOSPITALS AND CARE OF THE SICK IN THEIR HOMES.

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The actual care of the sick in hospitals and care of the sick in their homes is the very commodious title that has been assigned me.

For many generations there have been two varieties of hospitals, the charity hospital, maintained by municipality, state or nation, and the semi-charity hospital, maintained by some religious body.

Later individual physicians established hospitals for their own patients. The maintenance of the last class of hospitals proved expensive and annoying, and from this fact developed the

private hospital, designed, owned and controlled entirely by physicians. In other words, the physician and surgeon, instead of maintaining a hospital of which he has all care and responsibility, forms a co-operative business organization with his fellow practitioners, and they employ a physician to manage their establishment.

A little less than a decade ago fifty Los Angeles physicians did the pioneer work in this direction. They formed a corporation known as the California Hospital of Los Angeles. Then they made a mistake by starting out with a capitalization of only $25,000. They spent over $30,000 before they opened their doors. This institution has been a success from the beginning. The California Hospital now represents an investment of $250,000 and is capitalized for $400,000, about one-third of which is treasury stock. It steadily pays its stockholders a dividend of five per cent. per annum. Since the California Hospital has set the pace a similar organization has been formed in almost every considerable city in the United States. The advantages of a co-operative hospital owned and controlled exclusively by medical men are:

1. It secures harmony and a good fellow feeling in the profession by bringing them in close and frequent contact with each other;

2. It concentrates the doctor's work and he is thus able to pay closer attention to his patients without the great sacrifice of time that would be necessary if they were in their own homes, or in various institutions;

3. They care for their patients very much more economically than could be done in small hospitals;

4. As patients are cared for in these co-operative hospitals at from $10 per week upwards, they discourage pauperism;

5. They are doing a great work in overcoming the prejudice that so recently existed against going to hospitals.

My remarks this evening are principally of a local nature. My professional life of thirty years in Los Angeles has given me, I fear, a provincial view.

From my standpoint there is yet room for another kind of hospital, and that is a place where working men and working

women can be cared for at from $3 to $8 per week. We should do everything possible to give the clerk in the store, the laborer on the street, and the woman behind the sewing machine, good nursing and medical care without sending him to an institution that in any way gives the idea that he is receiving something for which he is not paying.

In Los Angeles we have an institution of this kind established through the wise philanthropy of Dr. Walter Jarvis Barlow, devoted entirely to the tuberculous. Dr. Barlow admits no person who is able to pay more than $7 per week. We, on the Pacific Coast, from Seattle to San Diego, are overwhelmed with impecunious invalids who are sent to us by over-zealous friends and deeply sympathetic city and county officials.

Our Pacific Coast municipal and county institutions relieve distress where they find it without going into ancient history, but Dr. Barlow very justly provides that no patient can be admitted to the Barlow Sanatorium who has not lived in Los Angeles County at least one year.

In every city there is the clean, respectable, well managed, profitable hotel where board and room can be procured for $1.00 per day. The people who stop there are just as independent, just as worthy and just as far from being paupers as those who are patrons of the St. Regis in New York, the Bellevue-Stratford in Philadelphia, the Auditorium in Chicago or the hotel that bears the name of the beautiful city in which we are now meeting.

What we need is the dollar a day hotel for the sick, — the independent, self-respecting sick.

In the California Hospital the average cost of maintenance per patient is $2.50 per day, but there is a telephone in the patient's private room, and unnecessary elaboration of diet, private baths connected with the various rooms and many other accessories that cost money, and yet do not add one whit to the chances of quick recovery for the patient.

By fitting up a dollar a day hotel for the sick on the same comparative general plan as the dollar a day hotel for the well, everything that is necessary for prompt recovery can be done for the patient and it can be made a business proposition.

The most irritating thing on earth is pity. It rasps the

soul, — what the sick person wants is care, not pity, and he is almost always willing to pay for that care, even beyond what his means justify.

The submerged tenth must be cared for, but our greatest mission is to open the way to those who desire to maintain a laudable independence.

There are many who should, if possible, be cared for at home. For instance, the mother who, although ill, can keep her family together; and the little child who can to a great extent, be cared for by the mother. Wherever it is possible, in all homes, whether of the worthy poor or worthy rich, parents should not be encouraged to hand over the self-sacrificing care of their children to others. The mother and father, by anxiously and actually caring for their children in times of serious illness and dire distress, fertilize their own souls.

The visiting nurse and the hourly nurse, who will be dwelt upon fully by others, are twentieth century missionaries, who go into the home, not to take the God-given responsibility from the parent, but to teach the mother and father how to fulfill the trust committed to them.

In Los Angeles we derive great benefit also from the nurse employed to visit our schools and inspect each child. This inspection leads both pupil and teacher to take an active interest in all hygienic measures and especially in avoiding contagious diseases of the eyes and the skin.

It seems to me while thus advancing we must be careful and not become too paternal, as a government, in the care of the people.

It is very important that the individual parent should not be relieved by his national parent of any of his responsibilities.

Education, not care, should be, in a majority of cases, the chief work of visiting and hourly nurses.

CONVALESCENTS: THEIR CARE FROM THE MEDICAL STANDPOINT.

LEE K. FRANKEL.

Probably no more significant or valuable statement on the treatment of the tuberculous sick has been made in recent years, than the one uttered by Dr. John H. Pryor at the second meeting of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction held in New York in November, 1901. At this meeting Dr. Pryor laid down the dictum that it was the best public policy to take care of the consumptive at the right time, at the right place and in the right way until he was well, and not at the wrong time, at the wrong place, and in the wrong way until he was dead. The thesis thus expounded has since that time become the basis of enlightened treatment of those who are afflicted with the "white plague," in all parts of the United States. It is not to our discredit to remark that in this same procedure we have followed the practice of intelligent governments in the old world; it is to our credit that we have early recognized the validity and sanity of the belief thus crystallized in Dr. Pryor's statement, and have also acted upon it with wisdom and intelligence. To-day in all parts of the United States we have special hospitals and sanatoria for the treatment of tuberculosis, not only of the pulmonary type, but for the manifold forms in which this disease manifests itself. Only within the past year we have added to the list of these special institutions the Camp for tuberculous children, founded by the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, at their sanatorium at Sea Breeze, N. Y. The splendid results that have been obtained indicate that the experiment was warranted and that similar enterprises will be established in other sections of the country in the near future.

Nor has the movement for the eradication been local; the reports presented at the session of this conference devoted to the committee on tuberculosis show that national organizations have been formed to study tuberculosis in all of its phases and

that all communities are awakening to the necessity for a rational, scientific treatment of this particular disease.

It is probably due to the prevalence of tuberculosis and the ravages which it has made through the centuries, that it has gained such prominence and that as a result of the investigations of the best medical minds, we seem to be on the threshold of the day when the death rate from tuberculosis will be on a par with other diseases.

Generally speaking, it may be said that the cures which have been effected depend upon an early recognition of the disease, and the subsequent application of natural therapeutic measures, such as fresh air, good food, freedom from care and anxiety, and the subordination of the patient to the treatment, irrespective of time limits or the patient's economic condition. Both from the medical and the social standpoint it has been conceded as the essence of the subject that the victim of tuberculosis who desires to recover his health, must subject himself to a prescribed program, and regardless of any economic considerations, must undergo treatment, not until he begins to feel well, not until he again begins to feel strong enough to return to work, if he belongs to the working classes, but until the time, when in the opinion of the medical practitioner, the last vestige of the disease producer, the tubercle bacilli, has been eradicated. It is true that even to-day this is not the case in many instances. Many patients return to their homes from sanatoria before they are discharged, and against the advice of the attending physicians. Others under the impulse of economic necessity sacrifice their restoration to health at the altar of their families, and become victims of paternal or filial duty, and of society's inability to make proper provision for such contingencies. It is becoming more and more recognized by the medical as well as the social worker, that if we wish to effect cures among the tuberculous, the best medicine we can give him is to provide for his family in his absence. It is needless to say that we are dealing here only with the poor, and in particular with the respectable wage-earning element with whom sickness has exhausted the savings of years, and to whom the absence of the wage-earner for an indefinite period in a sanatorium spells ruin. This, however, is

not the point which I wish to bring out at this juncture. It is sufficient to demonstrate that in the treatment of the tuberculous patient, it is universally recognized that the time factor is an important one, and that after the acute period of the disease has been passed, the upbuilding of the patient through proper food, pure air, and freedom from worry and medical supervision is essential, and that this must be accomplished without regard to the length of time such treatment may require.

The same cannot be said of the treatment of diseases other than tuberculosis, which, while the death rate may not be as high, are still exceedingly common, in fact so common that they are accepted as inevitable and as a part of the lives of most individuals. Many a good, old-fashioned mother still entertains the notion that her children must pass through a recurring series of diseases, such as scarlet fever, diphtheria, chicken pox, measles, etc. It does not strike the average adult as unusual that he should suffer from typhoid fever, pneumonia or Bright's disease. These have been accepted as diseases incidental to life, and must be taken with philosophic equanimity as they come in the category of ills to which flesh is heir. It does not strike the average human intellect that these common everyday ailments can be classified equally with tuberculosis, with smallpox and other malignant diseases in the class of preventable diseases, and that if the death rate from them increases or decreases, such increase or decrease can be attributed to distinct underlying causes, either apparent or remote. As a matter of fact, some of these causes lie so close to the surface that they have been ignored. We shall endeavor to indicate how one of these causes has had a material influence in affecting the percentage of deaths from the diseases mentioned.

A study of the vital statistics of the United States throws some light on this interesting subject. Notwithstanding the strides that have been made within the past two decades, in sanitary science, in the practice of medicine and surgery, in the betterment of living conditions, and in the general improvement in the physical status of all classes of the population, it is nevertheless the fact that in only a few diseases has the death rate been lowered.

It was to be expected that with the prominence given to the study of tuberculosis, the means would have been found to reduce the annual number of deaths from that disease. The census of 1900 shows a gratifying decrease to 10,688 deaths from consumption, as compared with 12,146 deaths per 100,000 in 1890. Similarly, the valuable work done by the Strauss Milk Depots and kindred enterprises, the careful study that has been made of infant diatetics, together with the discovery of the diphtheria serum has materially reduced infant mortality throughout the country.

But if we study some of the other so-called common diseases, we shall find another condition of affairs. Not only has there been no decrease in the death rate, but in spite of splendidly equipped hospitals, in spite of the development of medicine in every direction, in spite of the improvement of general conditions as cited above, the death rate of diseases which are most common, and from which the larger number of deaths result, has actually increased.

The following figures tell the story more plainly than words:

PROPORTION OF DEATHS FROM CERTAIN CAUSES PER 100,000.

Diseases with decreased death rate.	1900.	1890.
Cholera infantum	2,461	3,269
Diphtheria	1,586	3,396
Consumption	10,688	12,146
Diseases with increased death rate.	**1900.**	**1890.**
Pneumonia	10,198	9,091
Heart Disease	6,671	5,343
Diseases of the Kidney	3,534	2,312
Typhoid Fever	3,405	3,216
Cancer	2,837	2,203
Apoplexy	2,589	1,783
Inflammation of the brain	2,470	2,113
Paralysis	2,297	1,969
Diseases of the stomach	1,298	960
Diabetes	450	286

While some doubt may be thrown upon the accuracy of these figures even with the errors that may arise from the lack of a uniform system of recording deaths in all sections and communities, they are probably sufficiently correct to indicate a somewhat anomalous condition. It is difficult to realize our vaunted boast of progress in the last quarter of the 19th century; it is difficult to understand how we can claim for the 20th century a continuation of enlightened progress, if the page of our vital statistics is to be marked and marred by a record of an increase of deaths from typhoid fever, a disease whose history and etiology are definitely understood; if we are to see pneumonia and heart disease gaining in virulence and in fatal power. If improved medical science, more healthful living conditions, more wholesome food, better sanitary regulations and a more tolerant industrial environment cannot explain the seeming inconsistency of an increased death rate, must we not look for another cause to explain this anomaly.

In our large cities to-day, and possibly in the smaller ones as well, certain difficulties arise in the medical treatment of all but the well-to-do classes, which are patent to the average practitioner. The demands which are made upon the majority of hospitals in large cities by so-called acute cases, are so great, that they must perforce discharge patients at the earliest moment that is consistent with safety, and with the prevention of a relapse. Again, physicians in private practice cannot reconcile their theories with the physical needs of their patients, who, by force of circumstances, must depend upon their daily wage for their daily bread. The average dispensary does not go into the highways and byways seeking whom it may cure; its connection with its patient ceases with the latter's failure to return for treatment.

The report of the Post Graduate Hospital, New York, for the year 1903 shows that the average length of stay in the hospital was 17.2 days. In Roosevelt Hospital in the same city it was 19 days in 1903. In Beth Israel Hospital 23.2 days. In Mt. Sinai Hospital, 20.79 days. On the other hand, the report of the German Imperial Insurance Department shows that the average stay of patients in sanatoria, suffering from diseases other than tuberculosis was 52 days for men and 56 days

for women. It is interesting to note at this point, that under the German invalidity law, treatment in sanatoria is not a privilege but a right which even the lowliest workman has, and one which is frequently granted to him when ill, in the hope of preventing subsequent invalidity, with all that it entails.

Irrespective of the form of medical practice whether in hospital, dispensary or in private practice, it is obvious that as a result of the difficulties which confront the practitioner, we are developing a class of people in the community who may aptly be called the "half cured." They comprise the men and women whom the hospital discharges at the very beginning of convalescence because of lack of room, the men whom the private practitioner can no longer influence for their best good, for the reason that an impelling need drives them to the shop or to the factory at a time when nature is just beginning to let her handmaids, rest and sleep, exert their magic influence; the women who leave the maternity ward at the expiration of two weeks, because their children and their households require their urgent attention. All these and more make up the little army, not of incurable, but of uncured men and women who complain that their strength does not come back; who are always tired; who still have the pain in the back, or in the head, or in some other organ; who tell you that they are listless and indifferent, that they no longer have the same capacity for the daily task; these are the ones that tell you that they easily take colds, that they have trouble with the heart, that work has become distasteful or that they cannot work. These are the ones that eventually drift to the relief agencies as permanent dependants, or who in time help to swell the mortality lists and to increase the death rate from pneumonia and heart disease and the long ghastly list of ills which could be prevented if we but read the signs aright.

For let it be remembered that to-day we are beginning to recognize that diseases that were supposed to be the common heritage of all are in fact not so. It is the weak that succumb to disease, and not the strong. If pneumonia conquers, it is because an already weakened frame cannot resist the attack. The tubercle bacilli cannot live in a healthy organism, and the same

will probably be found true of the cancer germ when it is once isolated. That a man is as old as his arteries, is an axiom of the earliest medical practice, and the heart that has been debilitated by acute illness will break if the time and the opportunity is not given it to restore itself to normal conditions. And so through the whole gamut of diseases which so frequently result in death, and in which there has been an increase in the death rate during the last census decade, we will find that previous acute illness in the individual afflicted has left ineradicable weakness in the organism, by reason of the fact that insufficient time was allowed for a thorough and complete convalescence.

If we study the census statistics somewhat further we shall find another interesting series of figures, which if they are not convincing, are at least indicative of the truth of the foregoing premises. The death rate from certain principal diseases in 1900 shows a remarkable dissimilarity in the number of deaths from pneumonia and nervous diseases in the large cities when compared with smaller cities and towns.

The table below will give you some idea of what is meant.

DEATH RATE FROM CERTAIN PRINCIPAL DISEASES.

	Pneumonia.	Diseases of the Nervous System.
New York	320.2	175.6
Chicago	210.4	170.8
Manhattan	358.2	173.0
Boston	248.0	194.7
Philadelphia	231.7	254.6 (?)
Buffalo	151.7	162.9
Johnstown	308.9	244.3
Hoboken	287.2	282.1
Albany	175.3	281.8
Allentown	181.2	257.6
Atlantic City	136.4	282.1
Davenport	100.7	253.1
Covington, Ky	126.1	311.6
Portland, Me	210.8	387.4

Why is it that in large cities, and especially in Manhattan, the percentage of deaths from penumonia should be so alarmingly high and from nervous diseases so remarkably small? Surely it cannot be due to improper or insufficient treatment, since the local New York hospitals and medical practitioners are renowned above others for their skill and thoroughness. Nor can it be attributed to special climatic conditions producing distress of the respiratory tract. If this were the case we should expect to find Portland, Me., vieing with New York in the number of deaths from pneumonia, while the census figures show that Portland has the maximum number of deaths from diseases of the nervous system. We should expect that deaths from diseases of this character would be found in the greatest number in a city like New York, where the daily struggle for existence on the part of all classes of people is at the greatest tension and where nervous break-down is a common, every-day occurrence. How can we explain the somewhat paradoxical occurrence that New York of all cities should have such a low death rate from nervous diseases?

I venture to give the following explanation, which while it has no basis of statistical proof, will at least commend itself to thinking minds as rational and logical. In large cities neurasthenia and other nervous disorders are exceedingly common, even among the classes of population who earn their livelihood by manual labor. The daily grind of existence, the worry of finding sustenance for the morrow, the hand to hand struggle for the necessities of life set up changes in the nervous system which make the individual susceptible to minor ailments and which fill the clinics and dispensaries and hospitals. If these patients could be given the opportunity which is afforded their more fortunate brethren of a thorough convalescence, with all that this word conveys, there is no doubt that the majority would be restored to a condition of physical fitness which would enable them to withstand for long periods of time future onslaughts of disease. Instead of such a happy state of affairs we find conditions such as were stated above. Patients are discharged from hospitals as soon as they are able to walk. Practically no general hospital will receive so-called ambulant cases. It is a common experience to the social worker that admission is refused to sick people for the reason that they

do not belong to the so-called "hospital cases;" in other words, if they do not require surgical intervention, or are not so acutely ill as to be bed-ridden. Again, to repeat for the purpose of emphasis what was said above, the number of men and women who return to work or resume daily occupations requiring hard manual labor and mental worry, is legion. It is this class, unfit for work, physically incapacitated and bodily weakened, who become the prey of diseases like pneumonia, consumption, heart disease and Bright's disease. The man of wealth, or the man whose means are only moderately ample pursues a different course. Under the advice of his physician he travels to Europe, spends weeks in a sanatorium, hies himself to the country or to the mountains to spend weeks, and if necessary months, until his convalescence is assured and his complete recovery an established fact. Can there be any doubt that if the wage earner, less fortunate from the standpoint of wealth, could obtain similar treatment; if the honest, industrious workman whose slender purse has been exhausted by his illness could obtain the recreation, change, nourishment and rest which are so essential for a thorough convalescence; that our census figures would show a startling diminution in the death rate from pneumonia and tuberculosis and similar diseases?

The remedy is a simple one and can be stated in few words. If our hospitals and dispensaries are unable to provide properly for the sick from the standpoint of time, if they must be discharged when they are technically cured, but still weak and impotent, additional institutions must be created to meet their needs. Whether they be called sanatoria, convalescent homes, or by any other euphonious title is immaterial. What is desirable is that they should approximate to the least extent the regulation hospital and to the greatest extent the normal home. If such institutions which will give opportunity for rest, change of environment, pure air and the small amount of medical attendance which may be necessary, can be built in cities, there is no valid reason why they should not be established there. It goes without saying, however, that for the purposes intended, the country adapts itself admirably.

Away from the city, where land is cheap, a convalescent home

should be built on the cottage plan, and should be conducted to approximate as closely as possible to normal family life. Of equal importance, however, in effecting a complete cure of our patient, is provision for his family in his absence. We have heard much of the dangers of material relief and of the possibility of pauperizing families who may receive it. But there comes a time when we must cut the gordian knot. It is better public policy, viewed from the standpoint of economy or any other, to make adequate provision for the family of the man who is incapacitated by illness and whose savings are exhausted, than by permitting him to return to work in an enfeebled condition, to sow the seeds of more serious illness, and probably bring into the world offspring puny and undersized.

Another plan which will commend itself to many because of its simplicity, is the subsidizing of the patient himself by giving him the wherewithal to regain strength and health after a period of debilitating illness. If this is supplemented by relief for his family, we have almost an ideal method of caring for the convalescent. Its one disadvantage may be summed up in the fact that the average individual might remain in his original home environment during the time of convalescence. From the medical standpoint, change of surroundings is a valuable therapeutic, and one that should be taken advantage of by the poor as well as the well-to-do. In fact for the former, unaccustomed to change of any kind, a different environment in many instances produces remarkable improvement in condition.

The value of the two forms of treatment has already been recognized by private individuals. The Winifred Masterson Burke Relief Foundation, instituted in New York in 1902, by John M. Burke, will, when it becomes fully operative, provide for convalescent hospitals, and a fund for the relief of persons who have been self-supporting but have temporarily become incapacitated by illness, and will furthermore provide temporary assistance for the families of individuals thus afflicted. I quote from the deed of trust, as it gives valuable information for similar enterprises which may be contemplated in the future:

"The benefits of the foundation shall be reserved for intelligent and respectable men and women, who in consequence of

sickness or discharge from hospitals, before they have regained strength sufficient to earn their livelihood, may be in need of temporary assistance." Under the deed of trust ample latitude is given to the trustees to administer the trust at their discretion, and the interest of the four millions of dollars, the principal of the trust fund, will unquestionably be a novel and important factor in the cure of disease.

Within the past year, the Loeb Memorial Home for Convalescents has been created in New York City for the purpose of providing an opportunity for the enjoyment of wholesome surroundings in the country to recent sufferers from acute diseases, who have not yet recovered their strength sufficiently to attend to their daily duties. The trustees have purchased a farm in Westchester county, New York, on which it is intended to erect a cottage which shall approximate the home as nearly as possible. While there will be medical supervision, such oversight will be kept in the background as far as possible, so as to avoid to the greatest extent any suggestion of a hospital.

I have given these two illustrations to indicate what has been done by private benevolence. There is no doubt that they will act as an incentive to others to endow similar homes and funds. It is a question, however, in view of the prevalence of acute diseases, whether it is not the function of the state to consider the possibility of organizing some system of convalescent treatment for its sick citizens. As a matter of public policy, most states in the Union have recognized the need of making provision for the insane, and in most communities there are general municipal hospitals for the treatment of acute and chronic diseases. More recently states such as Massachusetts have recognized the needs of the tuberculous sick, and have established state sanatoria for their treatment. It is extending this theory a step further if provision is made for the convalescent, either in state camps or in state homes, or by subsidy from the state treasury. Under present conditions there is probably no form in which public out-door relief could be less objectionable and less subject to abuse than if applied to the temporary care of the sick and of their families.

Sickness is a condition easily determinable by medical examination and in the granting of relief to those who have passed the

necessary examination, greater allowance could be made with less danger of pauperization than would be possible under a general out-door relief system.

Here, too, would be applying a system already recognized in Germany, and one that has been in use for a number of years. The invalidity law of Germany, under which a fund has been established to which both the employer and employee contribute, practically guarantees to the latter adequate treatment in case of illness and relief of his family in the interval. Such a compulsory law is probably impossible in the United States. But there is no reason why individual state governments should not make similar provision for the sick, particularly as the compulsory tax which is demanded in Germany is indirectly assessed under our system of government.

If it is true that the average human life is valued at $1,500, it is only logical to assume that an initial outlay that will preserve this asset to the community will be economic and justifiable. Surely it is wise for the state, for private philanthropy or even for organized benefit societies, labor unions, etc., to institute a carefully regulated system of convalescent treatment, whether in specially adapted homes or not. Such preventive medicine will in time, eradicate the constantly growing need for homes for incurables, for hospitals and sanatoria for consumptives, for special institutions caring for the many forms of chronic diseases and will in time accomplish what has not yet been accomplished, notwithstanding our undeniable progress in medical science. I need hardly repeat that I refer to the lowering of the death rate from diseases which are altogether too common, and which result fatally when they attack a too weakened frame.

Let us give all classes of our population the opportunity of convalescing after acute illness, and we shall shortly find that we have developed a class of individuals better fitted for work and more competent to labor physically and mentally; and what is more important, physically, mentally and morally fit to bring into the world children of sound and healthy minds, who will carry forward successfully the ideals for which this country stands.

AMBULANCE SERVICE IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY NATHAN BIJUR, CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEE ON CARE OF THE SICK.

It must be apparent to every observer of the busy life in our cities that provision is necessary for meeting promptly the emergency presented by accidental personal injuries or sudden access of sickness. While, no doubt, every one has a feeling that, in the event of such an accident, an ambulance can be secured for the purpose of furnishing to the sick or injured person, immediate medical attention as well as conveyance to a hospital, if necessary, — probably not one person in a thousand has a definite idea as to the method of summoning an ambulance. The chance is that, if confronted with such an emergency, he would be tempted to emulate the example of the Scotch divine, who insisted that he would "boldly face the difficulty, and pass on;" or, if he were more altruistic, he would look for a policeman or notify a near-by drug store, feeling that his responsibility had ended by bringing the matter to the attention of persons who should know what to do !

Even a casual investigation, however, will be quick to demonstrate that, while in the case of threatened injury to property (although that often involves life, too) through the occurrence of fire, systematic, comprehensive, thorough and detailed provision has been made,— the ambulance service, which always deals with danger to life, has been left to chance and haphazard. Far more startling, however, is the conviction that an investigator will reach with equal promptness, i.e., that the ambulance service is generally, as far as our legislation or administration shows, not regarded as a subject of public provision, supervision or control. I am inclined to attribute this to the fact that the care of the sick or injured in hospitals has been looked upon as largely a matter of private charity, and that hospitals administered by volunteers and entirely outside of public official administration play so large a role in our philanthropic activities. When the need for an ambulance began to make itself felt it was naturally, then, the private hospital which installed the service. As the need grew,

so, in part at least, did the provision; until now, we find in the very large cities, dozens of ambulances, all attached to institutions under private management; while the municipalities have only a few, generally connected with one or more public hospitals, and often used exclusively for the transportation of persons suffering from contagious or infectious disease.

How serious this situation is, can scarcely be conceived without calling to mind the enormous number of accidents which occur annually in our cities, and without a detailed examination of the grave disparity between the efficiency of the fire system and the ambulance service.

To guard against fire, our cities have installed engines, hose carts, hook and ladder trucks, and fuel wagons. This apparatus is carefully distributed over the more settled portions of the municipality on a scientific geographic basis, with a view of enabling any given point to be reached, in the shortest time, by a force sufficient to cope with an incipient conflagration. Arrangements have been effected to bring to the scene officers of different grades, proportioned to the magnitude of the danger; and in every city the apparatus and personnel is increased to keep pace with the growth and population. So much for the fire service itself. In its relations with the citizen, a simple and almost perfect system of notification has been arranged whereby any individual can, within a few seconds, and almost automatically, summon the apparatus and personnel to the point of call. Constant stress is laid by the authorities in charge of the fire service, through newspaper articles or official notification, on the advisability of making no individual endeavor to cope with an initial blaze, but to go at once to the nearest fire box and summon the Department. To control this system, there is a thoroughly organized method of reporting and responsibility, with a centralized administration in charge of a Board or Chief or Commissioner, who, also, is advised from moment to moment of the exact character of the difficulty to be met, and of the disposition of the force amenable to his discipline and capable of direction accordingly.

Now let us look at the other side of the picture. If a person is injured on the street any one who has noticed the accident may have intelligence and initiative enough to telephone to a nearby

hospital and ask that an ambulance be sent, or he may delay by looking for a policeman who will then have to follow the same course. The question of the hospital to be applied to, is one left to the judgment of the applicant. He may select one that is far removed while there is one near at hand, or he may communicate with one or more that maintain no ambulance service. Assuming that he makes the correct selection, the ambulance attached to the institution may be out. If so, the applicant may repeat the performance until perhaps he finds at some hospital somewhere an ambulance prepared to answer the call. It may be, however, that the institution applied to which is ready for the emergency, is not satisfied of the need of a response. Nobody can tell what happens under such circumstances. No one in authority controls the situation. No one has any defined responsibility.

If, by good luck, an ambulance is finally secured, and reaches the injured person, in due course, before he dies, there is no guarantee that the surgeon in attendance is a competent one or that he will be amenable to any discipline. Generally there is not even any provision for compelling the conveyance of the injured person to any institution. In some cities the police sub-stations or central office may be called upon in the first instance — provided the citizen is aware of that fact.

Probably the best illustration of the utterly disorganized condition of our civic policy toward the ambulance service, can be found in the extreme difficulty, amounting almost to the practical impossibility, of obtaining accurate information on this subject in most cities without going about from place to place, more or less at haphazard, and looking for institutions that maintain ambulances and making inquiries there as to the methods, results and general statistics of the service. I have addressed a schedule of inquiries to the Mayors of 81 cities, asking for definite information in regard to the ambulance service. A few responded promptly. Very few answered fully or accurately.

By dint of iteration answers were obtained, after considerable delay, from 76 cities, the results of which I have tabulated and annexed hereto. The tables have been arranged in succinct form to indicate the principal items of interest; but owing to the disorganized and heterogeneous character of the ambulance ser-

vice, a full and accurate tabulation is impossible. Thus, in many cities which do not maintain a public ambulance service, and which have either a very limited, or no, private hospital service, one or more ambulances are maintained by individuals, generally undertakers,—rather ominous auspices. In other cities police patrol wagons, fitted with stretchers across the seats, are impressed into service in case of emergency. In many cities some private hospital ambulances and the Health Department ambulances are used exclusively for the conveyance of persons suffering with contagious disease.

It will be noted that five cities made no response whatever to my inquiries. They are San Francisco, Cal.; Kansas City, Kansas; Trenton, N. J.; Savannah, Ga.; and Charlestown, S. C.

In the case of San Francisco, as it is a city of considerable size and importance, I was anxious to obtain the information; and, therefore, addressed five separate and courteous inquiries to the Mayor, besides enlisting the services of one or two residents of the city interested in the subject,— but without success. Apparently, the system of municipal administration obtaining in that city does not include the furnishing of information on matters of public interest.

Boston, on the other hand, sent me a very full and prompt reply, from which it appears that the Boston City Hospital maintains 15 ambulances and the Police Department 10; and that these two branches of the municipal administration co-operate cordially, although there seems to be no officially centralized control. The Health Department has 3 two-horse ambulances for smallpox cases only; the Massachusetts General Hospital has 3 ambulances; the Massachusetts Homeopathic Hospital 1; the Emergency Hospital 3; and two departments of the municipal administration 1 apiece. Many of them are used for the conveyance of sick people between the home and the hospital. The Police Department ambulances in 1904 responded to 1921 calls; those of the Boston City Hospital, during about the same period, carried 6767 patients.

Owing to the fact that one large hospital with a superintendent at its head, and the Police Department, operate nearly all the ambulances, there is something nearer akin to centralized responsibility and management.

The Massachusetts State Laws give hospital ambulances the same right of way which fire engines and police patrol wagons have in the streets of all the cities and towns (Laws of 1904, Chap. 161).

While the police ambulances are distributed throughout the city, the Boston City Hospital ambulances are stationed, 10 at the Hospital proper, 2 at the Downtown Relief Station, and 3 (used only for infectious diseases), at the "South Department." Mr. George H. M. Rose, Superintendent of the Boston City Hospital, has kindly furnished me the above details.

St. Louis, according to a report prepared by Dr. Henry J. Sekerk, Chief Dispensary Physician, enjoys the nearest approach to a centralized system. The Municipal Dispensary, which maintains a central dispensary building and numerous branches, operates 20 to 24 ambulances, which responded, in 1903, to 12,678 calls. The entire service is under the administration of the Health Department.

Dr. George C. Hunt, Inspector of Hospitals under the Board of Health of Chicago, reports that the 8 ambulances of the Police Department in that city are distributed among different police stations, and that the commanding officer at each such station is responsible for any failure of service. The undertakers of Chicago maintain 19 private ambulances, which are used in connection with whatever hospital the convenience of contiguity may dictate !

Portland, Oregon, correctly reports but one ambulance, and that under the control of the Health Department. I am informed, however, that two of the railroads entering the city maintain ambulances, primarily, of course, to aid their employes.

Baltimore, Md., like many other cities, in case of emergency, avails of its police patrol wagons, fitted with stretchers across the seats; but without surgeons,— an expedient that is altogether too crude to deserve to be taken into consideration in discussing the real ambulance service.

Probably no more striking contrast between the fire and the ambulance service can be found than that existing in the city of New York. In the first place, it took me but a minute to obtain from the Commissioner of the Fire Department a printed list

showing the location of each of the 80 engine companies, 34 hook and ladder trucks, and 24 fuel depots in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx. A similar list for the Boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens shows the location of their 63 engine companies and 25 hook and ladder trucks. For a like inquiry as to ambulances, I had first to determine where to apply. After some investigation, I communicated with the police department. There my inquiry was most courteously received, but only after a delay of many weeks caused by the need of checking the data up to date, could the Department supply me with a list of 11 hospitals (3 public) operating 31 ambulances in Manhattan; 3 hospitals (1 public) in the Bronx with 4 ambulances; 15 (4 public) in Brooklyn, with 17 ambulances; 5 in Queens with 9 ambulances; and 2 in Richmond with 2 ambulances,— an aggregate of 35 institutions maintaining 63 ambulances.

A number of automobiles had been in use but they have now been discontinued. As no one was credited with their original installation, so no one seems to be responsible for their abolition. In a general way, each of the hospitals in Manhattan is "assigned to several police precincts in the neighborhood. In the other boroughs, the police are merely instructed to call up the nearest hospital. That is the whole "system."

When, in addition to this, it is remembered that the ambulances are installed only in such hospitals as choose to adopt the service, and that, as a consequence, there is not the slightest attempt at distributing them according to any geographical plan, the absence of method becomes more apparent. As a matter of fact, two hospitals in Manhattan,— New York and St. Vincent's, less than half a mile apart, maintain 6 ambulances, while on the middle west side of the city between St. Vincent's and Roosevelt, a distance of over 2 miles, there is no ambulance; and again, between Roosevelt and J. Hood Wright Memorial Hospital, a distance of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, on the upper west side, there is neither hospital nor ambulance, unless one be summoned from a hospital on the east side of the park, like the Presbyterian, which is over a mile from Roosevelt, and over three miles from the J. Hood Wright. There are other sections of the city similarly unprovided for.

There is a special ambulance stationed in Central Park main-

tained by the Park Department solely to care for persons injured in that park.

The New York City Health Department operates 12 ambulances, 5 in Manhattan, 4 in Brooklyn, and 3 on North Brothers Island, all however exclusively for the conveyance of infectious and contagious disease cases.

The average number of hospital ambulance calls per annum in the Borough of Manhattan is about 35,000. The average number of fire alarms per annum in Manhattan and the Bronx is 11,000. To meet the latter there are 114 engines and hook and ladder trucks, of which 5 is the maximum unit responding to a first alarm. Thus there are 23 units responding to 11,000 calls of fire, while the 31 ambulances respond to over 35,000 ambulance calls,— significant as well of the inadequacy of the ambulance service as of the greater proportionate wear and tear on the horses and vehicles.

In the matter of population served, the lack of system is still more marked. The lower section of the city, where probably three-quarters of a million of people are engaged from morning to evening, and where possibly the largest proportion of accidents occur, is served by but two ambulances from the House of Relief, on lower Hudson Street. A section like that subserved by the New York and St. Vincent's hospitals, maintaining 6 ambulances, contains a population, permanent and transient, of considerably less than 400,000 persons.

The only reference to ambulances in the ordinances of the City of New York is contained in "An Ordinance in relation to the right of way of, and other regulations regarding, vehicles upon the public streets."

Article 1, Section 2, reads: "The ambulances belonging to the department of public charities and correction and incorporated hospitals of the City of New York, shall have the right of way in the streets of said city, as against all persons, vehicles or animals, when conveying any patient or injured person to any hospital in the city, or when proceeding to the scene of any accident by which any person or persons have been injured."

It is not perfectly clear whether violation of so much of this ordinance as relates to ambulances is made a misdemeanor, which

would be punishable with a maximum fine of $100 or ten days' imprisonment, or whether the limit of punishment is merely a fine of not more than $10.

The State of New York has contented itself with providing in the Penal Code, Section 432, that any person who obstructs an ambulance is guilty of a misdemeanor, and in the Laws of 1896, Chap. 873, that in any city where there is an ambulance system wholly or partly supported by or under the control of public authorities, *if* (!) an ambulance has answered a call, the person in charge shall not refuse to take the sick or injured person to the hospital whence the ambulance came. Such refusal is made a misdemeanor. The "if" is extremely significant.

I have, since March, 1903, suggested several times to our former and to our present mayors respectively, the advisability of appointing a commission to investigate this subject,— indicating someone from the Health Department and somebody from the Fire Department as at least two proper members of such a body, — with a view of instituting some immediate reform, and of suggesting needed legislation. I proposed, also, the preliminary establishment of a central ambulance bureau, to be connected with the Police Department, which can receive and record all calls, and, if in charge of one or more competent operators, can always provide for the promptest service possible under the circumstances. No doubt voluntary co-operation between the hospitals and such a bureau could be effected readily, and if each hospital maintaining ambulance service, would notify the central office of every call not received directly through that office, so that the operator there would always be advised of the exact position of the apparatus under his general control and direction, something like responsibility and centralized administration would gradually be worked out.

Moreover, the city authorities could make temporary arrangements for installing an ambulance under public authority in the center of each of the two districts above named which are to-day uncovered, and thus at least patch up a grave flaw in the municipal administration.

I have kept an observant eye on articles in the daily press showing defects in the ambulance service, but the complaints of

delay and insufficiency are so numerous that to record them fully is beyond the power of a private individual. Two significant incidents, of which I myself happened to be a witness, deserve mention.

I happened to be passing along Central Park West one evening just after a woman was injured by being thrown from a trolley car. A gentleman who was on the spot when the accident occurred ran at once to a neighboring telephone and called up Roosevelt Hospital, *exactly one-half mile away.* The ambulance reached the woman while I was there, *after fourteen minutes!* Further comment is unnecessary.

On another occasion I reached the corner of 57th Street and Sixth Avenue, just as a cab ran over a man who was crossing the avenue. The injured man was taken into a drug store at the corner. After several minutes delay a policeman was found who telephoned to Roosevelt Hospital, *about half a mile distant,* for an ambulance. *One arrived in three-quarters of an hour !* Meanwhile an alarm of fire had been sent in from a box on Madison Avenue near 57th St. I saw the engines cross Sixth Avenue, in response to that alarm, and return after the blaze had been extinguished,— while all this time the man who had been injured by the cab waited for the help that should have been at hand within a minute.

I do not mean by this, to reflect on that particular hospital. *It,* no doubt, has some good excuse. In the words of Elijah, mocking the prophets of Baal, "Either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked." But one thing is certain: if a similar delay had occurred in responding to a fire alarm, there would have been a public outcry, a rigid official investigation and some wholesome decapitation.

I find in two of the great New York dailies of June 22nd, 1905, an account of an accident at one of the city hotels. I have copied so much as refers to the summoning and response of the ambulances:

"Policeman Cook ran up just after Kennedy and ordered an ambulance from Flower Hospital. Some one had already sent to Bellevue, though, and it turned out that somebody else had sum-

moned a private ambulance. The Bellevue ambulance beat the others out and started with the two victims."

"Policeman Cook saw the gush of steam on the street. When he heard that two people had been scalded he asked Fire Headquarters to send two ambulances. Calls were sent to New York and Bellevue Hospitals.

"Dr. Carter came from Bellevue Hospital to the fire-box at Madison Avenue and Forty-first Street, whence the call had been sent. He could find nothing and was about to drive back to the hospital again when he was informed that there had been someone hurt at the hotel."

Instances where injured persons have lain in the street from half an hour to an hour before the arrival of an ambulance, are frequently mentioned in the daily papers.

The expense involved in the establishment and maintenance of an ambulance service is surely not so great as to excuse its absence or incompleteness. The cost of an ambulance, with 2 horses (for relays), harness and equipment, appears to be between $1,000 and $1,200. The cost of annual maintenance is about $1,000, exclusive of rental of station, and assuming the services of the surgeon to be gratuitous, or at least to be included in the general expenses of the hospital or similar institution to which the ambulance is attached.

The statistics that I have been able to gather are, as I have explained, necessarily incomplete and inexact. As a first and unofficial attempt, however, to collate any information on the subject, it may suffice to indicate the need of a system, and may prove an incentive to a full, official and accurate ascertainment of the facts.

I must not close this paper without acknowledging my obligation to Wilson M. Powell, Esq., of New York City, who gathered considerable information on this subject for the City Club of New York, which had taken an interest in the matter at my invitation,— as also to Dr. William Schroeder, of Brooklyn, who published a short paper in the *Brooklyn Medical Journal*, of September, 1902, covering the history of the establishment of the ambulance service in that city.

City.	Population (1900).	How many ambulances maintained by city?	Is there a central management?	How many ambulances maintained by private hospitals?	Is there a central management?	Does city or state give special financial aid?	What arrangement for calling ambulances?	What are qualifications of ambulance surgeon?
Albany, N Y.....	94,151	None	No	3	Bureau of Police	No	Phone	House physician.
Allegheny, Pa.....	129,896	None	No	3	No	General	Phone	
Atlanta, Ga.....	89,872	2	Grady (City) Hospital	None	No	No	Phone	
Baltimore, Md.....	500,957	2	Health, Police and Charity Depts.	4	No	No	Phone	
Bridgeport, Conn.....	70,996	2	Charity Dept. and Emergency Hospital.	None	No	No	Phone	Regular practitioner.
Boston, Mass.....	560,892	10&15	Police and Hospital Depts., respectively.	7	No	.....	Phone	Surgeon.
Buffalo, N Y.....	352,319	None	No	7	No	$1 for each pub. patient	Phone	Physician with three months practice.

Cambridge, Mass....	91 886	2	Police and Health Depts.	None	No	No	Phone	City physician.
Camden, N. J.....	75,935	1	Central Police Bureau.	None	No	No	Police box calls and phone	None.
Charleston, S. C.....	55,807	No answer						
Chicago, Ill.....	1,698,575	12	Police and Health Depts.	3	No	No	Patrol box and phone	Police officer "First Aid."
Cincinnati, O.....	325,902	4	Supt. of Hospitals.	None	No	No	Phone	Interne.
Cleveland, O.....	381,768	1	City Hospital.	2	No	No	Phone	None.
Columbus, O.....	125,560	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	Physician.
Dallas, Tex.....	42,398	1	City Health Officer.	None	No	No	Phone	City Health Officer.
Dayton, O.....	85,333	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	Police Surgeon.
Denver, Col.....	133,895	2	Police and Health Depts.	5	No	No	Phone	Physician.
Des Moines, Ia.....	62,139	1	Police Dept.	2	No	General	Phone	City physician.
Detroit, Mich.....	289,704	None	No	Several	No	General		
Duluth, Minn.....	52,859	1	Health Dept.	None	No	No	.....	None.
Elizabeth, N. J.....	52,130	None	No	2	No	General	.....	Physician.
Erie, Pa.....	59,783	None	No	None	No	No		
Evansville, Ind.....	59,667	None	No	2	.....	General		
Fall River, Mass.....	104,863	4	Health Dept. and Overseers of the Poor.	None	No	No	.....	None.
Grand Rapids, Mich..	87,565	2	Health and Police Depts.	None	No	No	Phone	None.

AMBULANCE SERVICE IN THE UNITED STATES — Continued.

City.	Population (1900).	How many ambulances maintained by city?	Is there a central management?	How many ambulances maintained by private hospitals?	Is there a central management?	Does city or state give special financial aid?	What arrangement for calling ambulances?	What are qualifications of ambulance surgeon?
Harrisburg, Pa.....	50,167	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Police patrol system and phone	Physician.
Hartford, Conn.....	79,850	2	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	Police Surgeon.
Hoboken, N J.....	59,364	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Police signal system	City Physician.
Indianapolis, Ind.....	169,164	3	Charities Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	Physician by competitive examination.
Jersey City, N J.....	206,423	2	Health Dept.	4	No	No	Phone	Physician and examination.
Kansas City, Kan....	51,418	No answer						
Kansas City, Mo.....	163,752	4	Health and Police Depts.	3	No	No	Phone	Physician.
Lawrence, Mass.....	62,559	2	Pauper and Police Depts.	1	No	No		
Los Angeles, Cal.....	102,479	2	Police Dept.	3	No	No	Patrol boxes	Physician.
Louisville, Ky.....	204,471	2	Board of Public Safety.	None	No	No	Phone	Interne.
Lowell, Mass.....	94,989	2	Pauper and Health Depts.	None	No	No	.....	Physician elected.

Lynn, Mass.	68,518	3	Police Dept.					
Manchester, N H.	56,987	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Police signal service	None.
Memphis, Tenn.	102,320	2	City Hospital.	None	No	No	Phone	Physician.
Milwaukee, Wis.	285,315	3	Police and Health Depts.	4	.....	.....	Phone	
Minneapolis, Minn.	202,717	2	Charities and Health Depts.	5	No	No	Phone	
Nashville, Tenn.	80,865	2	City Hospitals.	2	No	No	None	
New Bedford, Mass.	62,442	3	Police and Health Depts.	None	No	No	Phone	None.
New Haven, Conn.	108,899	4	Charities and Police Depts.	2	No	No	Phone	Police Surgeon and Interne.
New Orleans, La.	287,104	3	City Hospitals.	4	No	General	Phone	Resident Student.
New York City, N. Y.	3,437,202							
Borough of Manhattan	.....	11 & 8	Hospital and Health Depts., respectively.	20	No	No	Phone	Surgeon.
Borough of Bronx	.....	2	Hospital Dept.	2	No	No	Phone	Surgeon.
Borough of Brooklyn	.....	4 & 4	Charities and Health Depts., respectively.	13	No	No	Phone	Surgeon.
Borough of Queens	.....	None	No	9	No	No	Phone	Surgeon.
Borough of Richmond	.....	None	No	2	No	No	Phone	Surgeon.
Newark, N. J.	246,070	2	Health Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	Physician.
Oakland, Cal.	66,960	1	Police Dept.	2	No	No	Police signal system & phone	No.

AMBULANCE SERVICE IN THE UNITED STATES Concluded.

City.	Population (1900).	How many ambulances maintained by city?	Is there a central management?	How many ambulances maintained by private hospitals?	Is there a central management?	Does city or state give special financial aid?	What arrangement for calling ambulances?	What are qualifications of ambulance surgeon?
Omaha, Neb.....	105,565	1	Police and Health Depts.	1	No	No	Phone	
Paterson, N. J.....	105,171	None	No	2	No	General	.....	Physician.
Peoria, Ill.....	56,100	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	Surgeon.
Philadelphia, Pa.....	1,293,396	7	Health and Charities Depts.	15	No	No	Phone	Interne.
Pittsburg, Pa	321,316	2	Health and Charities Depts.	11	No	General	....	Physician.
Portland, Me.....	50,145	1	Police Dept.					
Portland, Ore.....	90,426	1	Health Dept.	None	No	No		
Providence, R. I.....	175,597	1	Health Dept.	1	No	General		
Reading, Pa.....	78,961	1	Fire Dept.	1	No	No	Phone	None.
Richmond, Va.....	85,050	1	Charity Dept.	1	No	....	Phone	Physician.
Rochester, N. Y.....	162,435	None	No	4	No	General	Phone and police telegraph	Interne.
St. Joseph, Mo.....	102,079	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	City Physician
St. Louis, Mo.....	575,233	24	Health Dept.	Some	No	No	Phone	Interne.
St. Paul, Minn.....	163,632	2	Hospital and Police Depts.	2	No	No	Phone	Physician.

Salt Lake City, Utah...	53,391	None	No	2	No	No	No	
San Antonio, Tex....	53,322	None	No	1				
San Francisco, Cal...	342,782	No answer						
Savannah, Ga.....	52,244	No answer						
Scranton, Pa.....	102,026	1	Hospital.	None	No	No	Phone	Physician.
Seattle, Wash.....	80,671	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No		
Somerville, Mass.....	61,643	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No		
Springfield, Mass.....	62,059	2	Police and Pauper Depts.	1	No	No	Phone	None.
Syracuse, N. Y.....	108,374	None	No	2	Hospital Assoc.	$2500 annually	Phone	Interne.
Toledo, O.....	60,651	1	Police Dept.	None	No	No		
Trenton, N. J.....	73,307	No answer						
Troy, N. Y.....	60,651	1	Public Works Dept.	None	No	No		
Utica, N. Y.....	56,383	2	Police, Fire Depts, and City Hospitals.	None	No	No		None.
Washington, D. C....	278,718	4	Charities Dept.	3	No	General	Phone	Physician and 6 mos. experience.
Waterbury, Conn.....	45,895	None	No	None	No	No	No	No.
Wilkesbarre, Pa.....	51,721	None	No	5	No	No		
Wilmington, Del.....	76,508	1	Fire Dept.	None	No	No	Phone	None.
Worcester, Mass.....	118,421	2	Police Dept.	2	No	No	Phone	Police Surgeon.
Yonkers, N. Y.....	49,545	1	Health Dept.	2	No	General	Phone	Physician.
Youngstown, O.....	44,885	None	No	None	No	No		

THE ECONOMY OF NURSING THE SICK POOR IN THEIR HOMES.

BY MRS. S. S. WISE, PORTLAND, OREGON.

"Change is in the air" now as it was when Thomas Huxley made his memorable address at Aberdeen. "It insists now as then, on asking of institutions, however venerable, whether they are in harmony with the real or supposed wants of mankind."

One of these very real wants is the longing of the sick poor, as of the sick rich, to remain among the loved and loving members of the home, when sickness lays them low. But it is not this natural longing, not the sentimental side of the question, with which I am to deal. Change is indeed in the air! Time was when the physical sufferings of mankind were far greater than they are in these days, because there were no hospitals, but now that hospitals, the great landmarks of philanthropy, are here, are we not erring at the other extreme, by throwing off the home responsibilities of caring for the sick, especially the sick poor and by crowding them into hospitals?

Let me confess at the outset, that the economy of nursing the sick poor in their homes does not appeal to me as being as important a question as the *duty* to care for them there, yet I shall endeavor to look at the economic side of the question — considering only those cases in which it were medically possible and advisable to nurse the sick poor in their homes.

The cost to us in Portland of caring for the sick poor in their homes, has been small indeed, for we have had the generous co-operation of physicians who have been ever ready to give their services as labor of love. Our drug supplies have been secured as donations from many pharmacies. Every necessity of the sick room, including delicacies so grateful during the period of convalescence, has been donated to the Visiting Nurse Association, by the dealers in these things. Our supply closet and telephone station have been free offerings of the City Board of Charities, and there has been also no expense connected with this work, beyond the salaries of our nurses. As the nurse cares for from five to twenty cases daily, at the average payment of $60.00 per

month, one can readily compute the small amount of money necessary for the care of a large number of sick poor in their homes where they should be cared for. Added to this there have been small payments from our patients, whenever it was in their power to pay for the services of our nurses.

And now let me turn to perhaps the most important aspect of the entire question — the inestimable advantage of keeping the family together. We have often found after acceding to requests to send the mother of a family to the hospital, that irretrievable harm has come of it. Relieving her of her duties for a short time had alienated her not only from these duties — it seems impossible to believe it — but even from her children, for all time. Homes have become disrupted never to be united again, the husband in one case, becoming a roving vagabond, and the children placed in asylums where they became a charge upon charitable societies. The directing influence of a mother from a sick bed is inestimable compared with the lack of a mother's influence in the home. If I may make a suggestion, it is that the physician and nurse weigh well before they issue the command, "to the hospital" — weigh well not only the physical but the moral outcome. It is easy, much easier in every way for physician and nurse to treat their patients at the hospital, where all scientific appliances are at hand and sanitary conditions are so much better. Yet the simpler, easier way does not always prove the better way in the end. The foundation of the home must not be undermined if in any way this awful catastrophe can be averted. The care of the sick by their very own, deepens the sympathy between them and strengthens their love for one another, for sacrifice enriches him who gives and forever holds and binds him who receives. Let us not lightly loosen or break these sacred bonds. Let us not fail to consider the advantage to be gained by an entire household from the lessons taught by the visiting nurse, lessons in cleanliness that may be an influence for a lifetime on young children, as well as the science and skill of caring for the sick, caring for them patiently, gently, firmly, wisely and helpfully.

I plead for study of this question of caring for the sick poor in their homes, for a deeper, wiser sympathy in this comparatively new departure from venerable institutions. Nursing the sick

poor in their homes is in countless cases an ethical obligation as well as a real economy. A saving of money we are sure that it is, but above all it is a saving of human bodies and souls alike, a safe-guarding of the most sacred relations of humanity.

CO-OPERATION BETWEEN HOSPITALS AND GENERAL RELIEF SOCIETIES SO AS TO PRODUCE BETTER CO-ORDINATION OF THEIR FUNCTIONS.

BY W. R. WALPOLE, SECRETARY CITY BOARD OF CHARITIES, PORTLAND, OREGON.

Our point of view on a given subject is largely determined by our experience in dealing with its problems under local conditions. So the contents of this paper are based on experience in the effort of our local City Board of Charities during the past sixteen years to bring about co-operation in charitable work.

Since the name of this organization seems to imply that it is connected with the municipal government, let me say that its aims, methods and principles are identical with those of the Associated Charities, Bureaus of Charity and Charity Organization Societies in other cities. We have met the same conflict of the old and the new, the sentimental and the practical, the political and the private modes of action, familiar to you all under varying conditions.

We have a large migratory element in our population and a greater proportion of transient men than in many parts of the East. The coming of the fall rains sends a stream southward, and summer heat in early spring turns the tide of migration to the north. A new discovery in some mining district turns the tide in that direction, a shutting down of work in logging camps or surplus of labor in the mining camps, suddenly floods the cities with unemployed men. Those with money soon part with it in gambling and dissipation of various sorts and many cases of sickness and temporary need arise. Many families come here from the East, having used all their means in transportation expecting to find an Eldorado here. Frequent cases of need of medical care either in hospital or home are found among these.

The slums as existing in Eastern cities of older and larger growth are not found here. Our laboring people have their homes principally in the suburbs of the city and the tenement house is only beginning to come.

We have here as instrumentalities in caring for the sick poor: the municipality, the county, hospitals, sanatoria, relief societies, churches, missions and benevolent individuals. How may we best secure co-ordination of functions among these? How unify and direct the forces involved so as to secure the best results for those in need and for the community; how effect the greatest economy of strength, time, and money consistent therewith?

It has been suggested to me that this topic be considered from the standpoint of a benevolent despot with full power to control the situation. Supposing that we have found our despot and seated him on his throne let us imagine his course of action. Experience shows that a prime factor in securing co-operation and co-ordination of functions, is a common center of investigation, registration, and intercommunication, which shall also be a source and cause of immediate necessary action.

Our despot would then open a central office with manager and assistants to give immediate attention to every case reported, to secure such facts as necessary to intelligent action, and to get in touch at once with the proper source of relief. Failing to come in touch with such source of relief he would find within his own resources the aid required. He would see that his records were made and kept sufficiently accurate and complete to be a guide in managing each case till a final solution was effected. He would have each institution, society and individual keep records of all applicants, and furnish reports to the central office of care given and relief furnished.

He would have each hospital keep physicians of its staff in readiness to attend any case among the poor in its district, and provide for the prompt removal of each patient to the hospital when necessary. Trained nurses, or nurses from the hospital training class would also be in readiness for the service in the homes on call. He would have a sufficient number of working women engaged to take charge of households and do necessary

work when patients could not otherwise be cared for in their own homes.

Since a special aid to the recovery of the hospital patient is the knowledge that his family is properly cared for during his absence our despot would provide amply for their care. He would see to it that no patient was discharged as cured till he had gained strength to meet the battle of life. This would mean a convalescent department in each hospital or a convalescent home. Suitable light employment would be provided, to gain for the patient bodily strength and mental ease. Should the situation demand it, an emergency hospital with visiting physicians, nurses, and ambulances would be established, the cost of maintenance to be met jointly by city and county, possibly supplemented by private subscriptions.

But, is not our ideal despot a representative of enlightened public sentiment? Is there not already at hand the instrumentality for effecting our purpose? In securing the best care for the sick poor what are some of the immediate objects to be attained?

1. Prompt attendance of a physician and immediate removal to hospital when necessary.

2. Nurse in the home or woman to help the mother, or both as may be required.

3. Material aid for the family during the absence of the breadwinner in hospital.

4. Proper care and aid during convalescence.

5. Means to meet the cost of care in hospital and in home.

As the case stands what provision has already been made in response to an enlightened public sentiment for meeting its demands? The Associated Charities is the center of intercommunication required and is also or should be, a source and cause of immediate action. Instead of being hampered in its action by red tape and the supposed cold formality of paid officials of which we hear so much, the very reverse is true. Experience does not breed incompetence in charitable work more than in any other. Knowledge of the facts in any case underlies all beneficial action. Immediate necessary action can most surely be taken when based on knowledge and experience attained in service. A wise mother

does not give her child cake and candy on demand. The wise charity worker does not always give the applicant what he asks but what he needs.

How does the Associated Charities attain the object in view? First, when a case of sickness and need is reported one of the visitors attends to it at once. If the situation demands immediate medical aid and the county or city physician is not to be had soon enough, the nearest doctor is called in to determine the condition of the patient, and if necessary a carriage or ambulance is called at once, and the patient taken to the hospital. The question of cost may be an after consideration, the making of bricks without straw being an occupation, at which the charity agent has become an expert.

Second, if a nurse is needed one is supplied. If a woman helper in the household is wanted, one is found among the neighbors or supplied from the office list. If material aid in provisions, fuel, etc., is needed, enough is given to last till more can be secured from other sources.

Third, in securing continued aid during the patient's stay in hospital, the first sources sought are relatives, friends, employers, societies and churches. If none of these are available the wise charity agent has his emergency fund on which to draw for immediate relief and his wealthy giver who will gladly place at his disposal the requisite funds for continued care.

Fourth, proper care and aid during convalescence. If the patient is discharged before strength is gained to take up his usual tasks, the charities by its paid workers or its friendly visitors, cheer and aid him on his way by visiting him in his home, continuing material aid, and providing employment suited to his strength, and rest according to his need.

Fifth, to meet the cost of care in home and hospital. Our hospitals usually make the claim that no poor patient is ever turned away and earnest effort is made to make good their claim, nevertheless there are sick poor people who ought to have hospital care, but who do not get it, in private or public institutions. The difficulty of getting sufficient funds to give the best care for all indigent patients is often great, and in the effort to make ends meet the result may be that all are not admitted who ought to be,

and some still sick may be discharged to make room for others who are more sick. To help out, relief societies and private individuals endow, and maintain free beds, and make donations. A portion of the deficit might be and usually is met from the public funds in maintaining city and county hospitals or in paying a reduced rate for patients in private hospitals. Under existing conditions the Associated Charities agent may in some cases be obliged to call on his cheerful giver.

DIFFICULTIES.

A chief difficulty in the way of the charity worker at the present time is the political system based on the vicious maxim that "To the victor belong the spoils." The average public official who attains position under this system has an inveterate antagonism to the Associated Charities and all that pertains to it. He seems unable to understand that there are workers whose chief motives are far higher than his, and whose controlling aim is to reach the best results, to do the most good, not to get fat salaries and abundant perquisites.

He meets any effort at investigation of his ways of dealing with the problem of charity in individual cases with vindictive opposition. He is a product of the system, and conditions cannot be improved so long as the wire puller, vote getter and ward heeler get the appointments, instead of the competent man of experience in the line of service required in the position. Even if by persistent effort the charity agent establishes working relations with city and county authorities it will usually be a little before election, and after the change in officials the work has all to be done over again.

Another difficulty lies in a prevailing sentiment among the opponents of the new charity that almsgiving is the true charity, that an Associated Charities is about the most useless thing on earth.

There is one remedy to be applied before the final one. Create public sentiment, influence it through every avenue, pulpit, press and individual effort. Do good work and keep doing it. Give line upon line and precept upon precept. In doing the work give the last sacrifice — self.

This failing, we must wait for a new set of people.

VII.

Warfare Against Tuberculosis.

REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE.

EDWARD T. DEVINE, CHAIRMAN.

In the inclusive index of all the sessions of the National Conference prior to and including the Chicago Conference of 1893, the words consumption, tuberculosis, and sanatorium do not appear. Save for a passing reference here and there, such as that in a paper in 1896, by Dr. Goler, in regard to the effect of tuberculosis on juvenile delinquency, and in 1897 by Dr. Powell on the relation between tuberculosis and feeble-mindedness, there appears to have been no discussion of the subject which occupies the attention of this session of the conference until the Cincinnati meeting of 1899, when, in the section on county and municipal charities, Dr. George F. Keene, of Rhode Island, read the stirring paper on municipal responsibility in the spread of tuberculosis which was for many of us in the conference, the beginning of an active and definite participation — at least by sympathy and moral support — in the struggle against the great white plague.

Since the Cincinnati Conference the index of every volume of the proceedings has borne testimony to a continued and increasing interest in the subject, and, what is of even greater significance, these references are now most frequent in the reports from states, where the record of the establishment of sanatoria, the creation of commissions to inquire into the advisability of action, or the enlargement of existing facilities, is now one of the most constantly recurring features, demonstrating that the movement has long since passed beyond the initial stage of agitation and discussion, and has entered upon that of realization.

A notable landmark in the movement to which the National Conference is thus contributing, is the establishment of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis,

primarily under medical auspices, but with its sociological section, and with laymen active in its discussions and in the direction of its executive work. This new association appropriately called to preside over its first annual meeting in the City of Washington, in the month of May of this year, the pioneer of open-air sanatorium treatment — Dr. Edward L. Trudeau, of the Adirondack Cottage Sanatorium, who, although himself in delicate health, came to the meeting. On the delivery of his presidential address, he received an ovation from the large gathering of physicians and laymen which must have seemed to him an extraordinarily striking contrast with his unsupported, almost unnoticed journey into the mountain wilderness just twenty years ago.

In 1885, when Dr. Trudeau went into the Adirondacks, there were only eleven hospitals in the country in which special provision was made for consumptive patients, and these were mainly for advanced and incurable cases. In the first five years after Dr. Trudeau's experiment in open-air treatment began, four additional sanatoria, intended, like that at Saranac, for early cases, were established. In the next five years six more were opened and finally in 1895, just half-way between the beginning at Saranac and the present year, there began that accelerated and widespread movement for sanatoria for early cases which led to the creation of nineteen such institutions in the first five years of the decade, and seventy-six in the five years which have just been completed. Of these seventy-six institutions, twenty-three were opened last year, and an equal number the year before, and at last reports thirteen additional hospitals and sanatoria have been opened or projected since January 1, of the present year. There are in all at the present time one hundred and thirty-six special hospitals and sanatoria for consumptives, thirty-one of these being merely separate buildings or wards or tents in connection with general hospitals, the remaining one hundred and five being exclusively for tuberculosis.

It is not an imposing number compared with the need. The total number of beds in all these institutions when statistics were collated a year ago was 8,306, or about one for every forty of the 330,000 living consumptives in the United States, if we may assume that there are three living consumptives for every recorded

death from the disease. When it is considered, however, that a large proportion of these accommodations have been supplied within the past five years, the numbers assume a more favorable character, and it is apparent that we may look forward to the time when a fair proportion of those who cannot be cared for satisfactorily in their own homes, will find either a sanatorium for early treatment, or at least a refuge in the final stages of their disease.

Both sanatoria and houses of rest are needed, but we may fairly estimate our progress in the intelligent treatment of tuberculosis as a whole by the relative increase in the former and the decrease of the need for the latter. So far as the experience of institutions like those at Rutland and Saranac, which deal with early cases, afford a basis for a conclusion, it would appear that about 75% of the early cases may be cured. Is there any doubt then, that adequate provision should be made for all who are willing to accept treatment while still curable? We do not for a moment assume that all cases of tuberculosis will be discovered while a cure is possible, nor do we assume that all who are so fortunate as to have a correct diagnosis at this early stage will be willing and able to leave their homes for sanatorium treatment. We do not even assume that it would be desirable that they should, for home treatment, under favorable conditions of partial isolation, fresh air, appropriate exercise, suitable food, and competent medical direction, yields also astonishingly favorable results. We do plead, however, for increased accommodation for that remaining very large class of patients, of whom some can pay board and some cannot, who are curable and who know it, who are advised to go to a sanatorium and who are willing to go, but for whom there is no provision at the present time either in public or in private sanatoria. Bear in mind that 75% of them will recover if they have the chance, and that unless increased accommodations are forthcoming not more than one-third of these curable cases will in fact recover. In other words, if there are now 110,000 deaths each year in the United States, as there were in the last census year, and if 80,000 of these are curable by methods which we have fully tested, while only 20,000 have the opportunity to take advantage of those methods, it means that

some 60,000 needless deaths, from a preventable disease, are to be charged to the account of our parsimony, or our neglect. The only plausible argument which has been urged against appropriations for state sanatoria is the magnitude of the sum which would be required to do the work thoroughly and to care for all who need care. As if this argument did not with irresistibly damning conviction carry its own refutation! Who shall say that the scores of patients who suffer and would die from diphtheria or appendicitis shall have their medical and surgical wards while the thousands who are in danger from a more manageable disease shall die in their agony, and shall leave each his infected victims who might have been spared if the sanatorium had been at hand? We stand at a moment of thrilling promise and inalienable responsibility, when it is only necessary for us to put into practice, so far as this aspect of the matter is concerned, the principles which have been established, to meet the expenses of providing the care to which the afflicted have been declared by authoritative medical opinion to be entitled.

If, then, we may consider the movement for hospitals and sanatoria to be well under way, it is equally gratifying to discover that special dispensaries for the treatment of patients who remain in their own homes are also being started in many communities. Already there are twenty-one of these dispensaries, besides the eleven district offices of the tuberculosis committee system in the City of Chicago. The principle may be said to have been established within the medical profession that separate treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis is in all respects preferable, both for the sake of the patient himself, in order that he may receive more specialized treatment, and for the sake of those with whom he would be thrown into contact in general dispensaries.

Within a month a plan has been inaugurated in New York City by which, in the dispensary maintained by the Health Board a special class for negro patients will be held on two evenings of the week, in personal charge of physicians of the colored race, who have the full confidence of their people, and will be able, it is believed, to induce many to come for treatment who are at present receiving not any, or at least not sufficient, medical advice and care. This will, of course, carry with it the supplementary

district nursing and special diet which is extended to other patients under the oversight of the same dispensary.

The high death rate in the Chinese population of San Francisco, suggests a similar differentiation in the dispensary service of that city. At the present moment, on account of the excessive mortality from tuberculosis among the Chinese, San Francisco has a death rate higher than that of any other city in the United States except New Orleans and Washington. Its climatic and other conditions would suggest that it should be among the lowest.

And thus the preventive work of special dispensaries is becoming every day more extensive and more closely adapted to the particular needs of our different communities, although there is here also abundant room for further extension and still greater diversity to fit local needs.

Associations for the prevention of tuberculosis are in process of formation in all parts of the country. There were already thirty-eight of these in existence when the National Association was inaugurated last year. Territorially they are dispersed from New England to Southern California, although there are still many states, including that in which our National Conference is held this year, in which no definite movement of this kind has as yet been undertaken. It is the function of these associations to arouse and sustain enlightened public interest in preventive measures, to conduct propaganda through the daily press, through the higher institutions of learning, through the public schools, from the lecture platform, by fugitive leaflets, and in every other way that may suggest itself, concerning the elementary facts about the disease, its communicability from one person to another, its curability in the early stages, the means of communication, the means of cure, and the means of prevention. It is their self-imposed duty to conduct an agitation in favor of appropriations for sanatoria, dispensaries, and such other agencies as may be required; to insist upon a high standard of excellence in their management; to keep the public informed concerning their usefulness and to discover any possible means of prevention or remedial action which the peculiar conditions of the locality may suggest. Through local associations, individuals may be kept in touch with others interested in the same movement, may profit by their dis-

coveries and experiments, and may pass on for the benefit of other communities the results of their own experience and progress.

As the movement for the prevention of tuberculosis takes on more tangible form and finds expression in manifold ways, we may expect that there will be a more searching scrutiny of the quality of the work done in the various hospitals and sanatoria. We may expect that a definite standard will be established which will become familiar both to physicians and laymen, so that if in a given institution satisfactory results are not obtained as compared with that which is accomplished elsewhere, there may be rigid inquiry into the reasons and possible remedies. When we are asked, as we are now being asked, to come to the support of the sanatorium movement before the legislatures, before the municipal authorities, and in the public press, we have a right to demand — it is a clear duty to demand — that they be well managed, that patients receive that degree of individual attention and that quality of professional service which will give them the maximum opportunity for improvement and recovery. The paradox that there are constantly vacancies in hospitals and sanatoria where the total accommodations are known to be insufficient for the needs of the population is to be explained by the fact that until the standards of care and comfort are raised patients will not remain in them. We have a right to know on the whole and in each specific instance, whether our institutions are as well manned and as well managed as similar institutions in foreign countries; whether the machinery of admission and discharge is judiciously conceived and effectively operated; whether there is comprehensive co-ordination of the various institutions, of sanatorium to dispensary, and dispensary to private practice, and of both to relief societies, and whether the results are being accomplished at a rational minimum expenditure of public and private funds. It is not to be overlooked that excellent results can often be obtained with very modest expenditure when larger resources are not at hand. The pioneer work at White Haven, Scranton, and Oil City, Pennsylvania, in curing consumptives at a very small per capita cost should be studied in every community which does not happen to have closer at hand a similar lesson in tuberculosis financiering.

Looking at the matter broadly from a national standpoint, it would appear:

That with one or two large exceptions, we are doing practically nothing at the present time for advanced cases.

That we are doing practically nothing for tuberculous children except to show by meagre experiment that both in the mountains and at the seashore marvellous results can be obtained if suitable sanatoria are established.

That we are failing to segregate and to give proper special care to consumptives in hospitals for the insane, in prisons, almshouses, reformatories, and other institutions.

That we are failing almost entirely to provide for special liberal diet in the care of consumptives in their own homes, which has been shown, under favorable conditions, to be a reasonably satisfactory substitute for sanatorium care.

That we are making no provision for suitable light employment of patients discharged from sanatoria, to prevent inevitable relapse if such patients return to unsanitary homes and to occupations involving unduly severe exertion.

That the work of popular education has only just begun. We still meet upon every hand people who are under the superstition that consumption is hereditary and that it is hopeless.

On the other hand, it may be fair to recall once more the successful experiments in the use of exceptionally favorable climates, and to acknowledge the excellent original research which is in progress in such laboratories as those at Dr. Trudeau's Sanatorium at Saranac and in Phipps Institute in Philadelphia, and elsewhere.

Because of the discouraging gulf between what we know and what we are doing, the committee was constrained to invite those who are to read papers in this section, to write upon the *Neglect of the Tuberculous Poor in Their Homes by Private Societies and Others and the Encouragement of Tuberculosis in Institutions*. Wiser counsels have modified the topics, although it may be found that the substance remains. From this conference, in the name of the charitable and correctional agencies of the United States, there must go an urgent demand for action in every state and territory and the islands of the sea. Let us show by our

mastery of the captain of the men of death that American medical science, and American civic spirit are in combination an irresistible force; that when we swept yellow fever from the Island of Cuba in an occupancy of that island lasting but a few months, we were not exhibiting the fortuitous results of an accidental discovery and the achievement of an extraordinary administration, but on the contrary, giving to mankind a prophecy of a new era when preventable suffering and death will be prevented, when American communities will learn the lessons of cleanliness and health, when state and municipal governments, strong not in a military despotism, but in the respect and confidence of their citizens, will vie with a philanthropy broad as the needs of man and wise in the wisdom of orient and occident to secure through the conquest of the social diseases a fair chance for life and health for all the children of men.

TUBERCULOSIS IN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

BY LIVINGSTON FARRAND, M. D., NEW YORK.

It is a hopeful sign for those of us who are engaged in the crusade against tuberculosis that the National Conference is concerning itself not with the general ravages of that disease, but with certain special phases of the problem. It is always in the concrete that results are obtained and the concentrated pressure which can be exerted by the organizations here represented can accomplish much. I am particularly glad, therefore, of the opportunity of speaking to you not upon tuberculosis in general but upon one of the most pressing of the needs of the situation and one of the most glaring of the many neglects of which society is guilty, namely, tuberculosis in public institutions.

While it would be obviously impossible to include all classes of institutions within the limits of a single paper, there are three which occur at once to the mind of everyone and these three are precisely the ones of most importance, viz.: Prisons, Insane Hospitals and Almshouses, and to these I shall confine my attention.

PRISONS AND OTHER PENAL INSTITUTIONS.

In a recent exhaustive and authoritative report* on the "Prevalence of Tuberculosis in Penal Institutions," Dr. J. B. Ransom, of Clinton Prison, New York, cites the statistics from seventy-seven prisons in thirty-eight states and two territories. These embrace a prison population of 44,285, with a tuberculous population of 2151, or a percentage of 4.88. The conditions are even more serious, however, than would be indicated by these figures, for in addition to the admitted inaccuracy of the reports from which the statistics are drawn we must recognize the fact that there are certain districts of the United States which are much more favorable, owing to both climate and population, to the development of tuberculosis than others; and, if we consider the returns from the New England, Middle Atlantic and Middle States of the Union we find a prison population of 29,167 with a tuberculous population of 1907, or a percentage of 6.5. It must also be remembered in forming a just estimate of the conditions that the age at which men are most likely to fall victims to tuberculosis is from 20 to 60 years, and this is just the age period from which the prison population of the country is recruited.

Perhaps a more striking impression of the facts can be drawn from a series of prison death rates recently published† by Dr. O. J. Bennett, of the Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania.

*Washington, D. C., 1904, H. R. Doc. No. 142, 58th Congress, 3d Session.

†"Tuberculosis and Cellular Confinement," Louisville, Ky., 1904.

Prison.	States.	Years (Inclusive).	Total Deaths from all Causes.	Deaths from Tuberculosis.	Death Rate from Tuberculosis.
Auburn	New York	1891–1902	298	133	44.5%
Sing Sing	New York	1891–1902	221	116	52 %
Columbus	Ohio	1898–1902	193	73	37.8%
Jefferson City	Missouri	1892–1902	261	124	47.5%
Joliet	Illinois	91–95–98–99	272	176	64 %
Richmond	Virginia	1891–1902	292	88	30 %
Eastern	Pennslyvania	1891–1902	167	105	62.8%
Western	Pennsylvania	1891–1902	131	52	39.6%
Wethersfield	Connecticut	1891–1902	118	48	38.9%
Charlestown	Massachusetts	1891–1902	49	19	38.7%
Moundsville	W. Virginia	1891–1902	195	116	58.9%
Lansing	Kansas	1891–1902	158	41	26 %
Fort Madison	Iowa	1891–1902	32	9	28 %
Central	Toronto, Can.	1893–1902	20	1	5 %
State & County Prisons.	Alabama	1893–1902	1,399	592	42 %
Stillwater	Minnesota	1891–1903	47	24	51 %

This table of death rates can be regarded as a much truer index of the conditions than the statistics obtained by Ransom, for recent estimates of authority would indicate that of the general civilian population of the world one-seventh is tuberculous, and that in the United States 10 per cent. at least of all deaths are due to this disease. In view of these figures, as well as from the internal evidence of faulty observation, we can accept Dr. Ransom's own dismissal of the reports and his estimate, from the experience of the few institutions in which careful observations and reports are made, that from 10 to 18 per cent. of all prison populations will show some form or degree of tuberculous infection.*

While we are primarily interested, of course, in the conditions in our own country, European observations would indicate that the problem is world-wide. As long ago as 1842 Baly,

*Ransom, loc. cit. p. 9.

of England, stated that in the Milbank Penitentiary in London of 175 deaths occurring in that institution from 1825 to 1842 no less than 75 were due to consumption, and besides these 75, 90 prisoners had been set free during these seventeen years on account of being hopelessly afflicted with pulmonary tuberculosis.* In French prisons the mortality from consumption is from three to four times that of the free population; in Prussian prisons the death rate from tuberculosis has been shown to be 45.8 per cent. of the total mortality among males for a period of 15 years and 49.3 per cent. among females for the same period, while in Austria a percentage of 61 has been shown.

The facts are evident and appalling enough. The causes are also not far to seek. A large proportion of the prisoners are predisposed by heredity and early environment to tuberculosis, even if they have not already contracted the disease before their incarceration. The vast majority have lived for years in unsanitary surroundings with the worst of nourishment both bodily and mental — just the conditions which we now recognize as the most favorable soil for the development of the tubercle bacillus.

The psychological influence of arrest, conviction and imprisonment must also contribute largely to the predisposing lack of tone. Consider the atmosphere into which the new criminal is thrown! The jails of the United States are notoriously unsanitary. The housing conditions, the lack of sunlight and air are usually as bad as they can be. Food is scanty or poor, medical supervision is usually a farce, isolation of infected individuals is unthought of, and every encouragment to tubercular infection is freely offered on every side. It is the opinion of all those qualified to judge that in this preliminary jail life many become infected, or are rendered physically receptive to the dangers that await them in the prison atmosphere which follows. It would be difficult to arrange a system of life more fitted for the transmission and development of tuberculosis than that under discussion. The location, construction, drainage and general hygiene of most of the penal institutions of America are all that they should be from the point of view of the bacillus.

*Quoted by S. A. Knopf in *Medical Record*, March 2, 1901.

The cells of the inmates range from 4 x 7 x 7 feet to 11 x 8 x 9 feet in size. As to exposure to light, of the 77 prisons reporting to Dr. Ransom* 22 report no sunlight at all in their cells; 24 only partial sunlight; and 29 direct sunlight during some portion of the day. The irritating character of the whitewash, which is almost universally used in prison cells, the workshops almost invariably dark, damp and crowded, and the occupations often of a dust-raising kind, such as stone breaking, metal polishing, manufacture of cotton goods, etc., the prison discipline, the solitary confinement with restricted diet, the infected clothing and bedding, all these are factors any one of which would be a menace under ordinary conditions of freedom.

The facts are before us. What then is to be done? The general remedy seems fairly clear, but the working out of details and the obtaining of the necessary authority and facilities form a task which may well stagger the physician charged with the problem in any given institution. Even if there were no divergent judgment among authorities as to just what course should be pursued, the entire subject is beset by ignorance, prejudice and sentiment.

Above all let us be practical. Is it necessary to do anything? From the point of view of society is it not just as well that this criminal and diseased class should disappear, even by the underhand means of tuberculosis? Without touching upon the ethics of the situation let us recall that practically the entire prison population of the country is released every five years. This means that thousands of centers of infection are being turned loose upon society, each one a source of danger. More than that, this prison population returns as a rule in freedom to exactly the environment most fitted to develop the disease — the crowded quarters of our cities. It is not then a prison problem, it is a problem of society at large. It is simply a matter of self-preservation.

It was said a moment ago that the general remedy seemed clear. Two things are necessary — recognition and isolation; early detection of the disease and segregation of the infected criminal under such modern enlightened treatment as the opinion

*Loc. cit. p. 10.

of the public will permit, and if necessary the education of that opinion to such a degree that it will not only permit but demand.

With regard to early recognition of the disease there should be compulsory medical examination of every prisoner admitted to a penal institution of any class, and this examination should be of a character which would detect as certainly as possible the presence of tubercular disease at any stage. Surely this is not an impracticable demand. There is universal agreement that strict segregation of the tuberculous prisoners with as much out door life as possible is absolutely necessary. It is here that the practical difficulties present themselves. The opposition to discrimination in the treatment of prisoners, the chronic poverty of the public purse, the lethargy of legislators and the apathy of society all conspire to block the wheels. That it is not impossible, however, to meet the conditions is shown by the splendid pioneer experiment of the state of Texas. In 1899 Dr. W. E. Fowler, with the co-operation of the prison officials of that state, established the Wynne State Farm for tuberculous prisoners. This is located on a high, dry elevation two miles from Huntsville, with no timber line near the present buildings. The farm was formerly owned by the state and had been cultivated by convict labor for a number of years. The old prison building was converted into a hospital. Everything on the place is kept in a thoroughly sanitary condition. The inmates are not allowed to expectorate on the floors or around the buildings. All prisoners who are able to be out of bed are required to do some kind of farm work adapted to their physical condition. This work consists of light farming, gardening, poultry and stock raising. The garden products are used to supply the prisoners' food while all beyond this is placed on the market.

The institutions of the state, including the jails, are directed to transfer all prisoners suffering from tuberculosis as soon as the disease is recognized. The most striking evidence of the success of this experiment is that during the three years of its life there were sent to the farm a total of 180 cases and during the last year of this three there was a decrease of over 50 per cent. in the number so transferred. This is attributed by Dr. Fowler, the physician in charge, and probably rightly, to

the system of removing all tuberculous subjects from the general prison population to the farm.*

It should be added that the labor of the 180 men was practically of no value in the prisons from which they were transferred, as most of them had reached an advanced stage of tuberculosis before their reception at the farm. *The farm is more than self-sustaining* if the expense of guarding the men be left out of account.

There seems to be no question in the minds of all prison physicians and those concerned with this problem that the establishment of a tuberculosis farm in connection with the prison system in every state would go far toward meeting the needs of the situation.

In New York State the difficulty has been partly met by the establishment in Clinton Prison of special provision for tuberculous prisoners and it is planned to provide eventually a system which will mean the transfer to that institution of every tuberculous case on its reception at any of the prisons and reformatories of the state. There are at Clinton Prison special tuberculous wards entirely separate from the hospital proper. These wards are well lighted and ventilated rooms with a favorable exposure and in connection are baths, toilet, dining room, and all the necessary facilities for handling the disease, including an exercise court for open air treatment. The specific treatment is as nearly as possible that in use in the best open air sanatoria, allowing of course for the exigencies of prison methods. The results obtained at Clinton are as follows:†

During the period between October 1, 1902, and November 1, 1904, there was a total of 461 cases treated in the hospital wards. Of this number 202 were discharged from the prison; 15 died of tuberculosis; 3 of other diseases; and 10 were transferred to the State Hospital for Insane Convicts, leaving 240 in the prison. Of that number 149 are under treatment and 91 are assigned to labor of different kinds best suited to their cases. In a majority of these 91 cases the disease is apparently cured

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*cf. Bennett, loc. cit. pp. 9ff.

†Ransom, loc. cit.

or arrested. Of the 202 men discharged from the prison during this period the results were:

Apparently cured	25
Arrested	85
Greatly improved	8
Improved	76
Negative	8

Special provision, more or less satisfactory, for consumptives is now made in about ten state penal institutions and there is every evidence that prison physicians are rapidly becoming alive to their problem. What is needed at the moment is a shock to the public apathy which shall insure the support, both material and moral, necessary to enable those charged with the task to accomplish the desired end.

HOSPITALS FOR INSANE.

Much of what has been said regarding prisons will apply with equal force to the situation in Hospitals for the Insane. The conditions in the latter institutions are, however, not as shocking as those in the former. According to the best estimates that have been made in the United States and England about 2 per cent. of the insane population in Hospitals suffers from tuberculosis.* The statistics with regard to the mortality from the disease are rather difficult to interpret.

It was shown in a paper† by Dr. J. W. Babcock, in 1894, that the percentage of deaths from tuberculosis in 98 American asylums ranged from 0 to 60, the majority showing, however, a tuberculosis mortality of from 10 to 30. These figures were for periods of ten years previous to 1894. In 1900, a careful investigation was undertaken by Dr. A. H. Harrington, who obtained reports from 67 state hospitals throughout the United States.** Grouping these geographically he found that in the New England States the total number of deaths in all institutions

*Fifteenth Annual Report, New York State Commission in Lunacy, p. 13. Albany, 1904.

†American Journal of Insanity for October, 1894.

**American Journal of Insanity for July, 1900.

heard from for five years was 3,208, with a tuberculosis death record of 383, a percentage of 11.9. In the Middle States the total number of deaths from all causes for the same period was 4,494, the deaths from tuberculosis 611, a percentage of 13.5. In the western and southwestern states the total number of deaths from all causes was 8,853, the deaths from tuberculosis 1,353, or a rate of 15.2. In the southern states the total number of deaths was 1,958, the deaths from tuberculosis 393, a percentage of 20. This would indicate no very startling increase over the general death rate from tuberculosis in the United States.

If we group the total number of deaths in the asylums reporting, it is 18,513, while the total number of those dying from tuberculosis was 2,741. This would make a tuberculosis death rate in those institutions for the past five years of 14.8. If we should conclude from this that there was no particular problem facing us we should doubtless be in error, for a large proportion of the reporting asylums show a death rate from tuberculosis extending all the way from 15 to 60; that is, in many institutions the proportion is from three to four times that in the community at large.

I do not feel called upon to comment upon the extraordinarily low tuberculosis death rate which appears in certain of the institutions. In many cases it is doubtless due to faulty observation and in other cases to an extremely favorable and healthful location and hygiene. I think it must be admitted, however, that taking the facts as we find them the problem in insane asylums is by no means so great or so pressing as in the prisons, which we have already discussed.

We would expect that with the lower physical tone which is characteristic of the insane that they would form a class peculiarly susceptible to the invasion of the tubercle bacillus, and it is perfectly evident that in those institutions where the disease has obtained a foothold, its ravages are great. The problem then becomes a special one for special places and not one which demands the attention of the country at large, to the extent which do some others.

That the authorities especially concerned with the care of the insane are becoming aroused to the necessity of dealing with

the tuberculosis situation is evident. Special provision for tuberculous insane with modern methods of treatment has already been made in California, Delaware, District of Columbia, Louisiana, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island, Vermont and Virginia, and the asylums of other states are rapidly falling into line.

The success of the open air tent treatment of the tuberculous insane has been strikingly shown by the experiment of the Manhattan State Hospital on Ward's Island in New York City.* The system was inaugurated in 1891 and in the winter of 1903-04 over forty patients were treated in this way. All active cases of tuberculosis in the Institution are now kept in tents throughout the year. It has been found that they improve under this system both mentally and physically and it may be added that the same reasonable procedure is being pursued with success for other classes of insane patients than those suffering from consumption.

The same sentimental objection to special or expensive provision for the insane might be made as is so often done in the case of criminals in confinement and the same reply which was made to that objection is applicable here. There is a generally wrong impression abroad in the community as to the hopelessness and non-curability of insanity. With certain forms of mental derangement the percentage of recovery ranges as high as 75 to 80, while if we take the records of hospitals for the insane in general it is probable that from 30 to 40 per cent. of the inmates are discharged as cured, or at least so far recovered that they can return to society. If then under these conditions we find a high percentage of tuberculosis infection we are bound to do what in us lies to prevent the distribution of these sources of danger throughout the country.

ALMSHOUSES.

The situation in almshouses is, I believe, comparable to that in asylums with however a higher degree of ignorance and failure to realize the conditions on the part of the authorities.

*Cf. "Tent Treatment for the Tuberculous Insane" by A. E. Macdonald, M. D., in Directory of Institutions and Societies dealing with Tuberculosis, New York, 1904.

For example, The State Charities Aid Association of New York has recently obtained reports from 34 county almshouses with a population of 3,471 and a tuberculosis prevalence of 2.3. If we eliminate one institution, the Erie Hospital and Almshouse, the remaining 33 have a population of 2,799 and a tubercular percentage of 1.5. This is obviously absurd.

It is the unvaried experience that competent observation increases the reported rate of morbidity by leaps and bounds and the bliss of ignorance is no excuse for complacent inaction. I present the figures with the conviction that they are wrong and might be misleading, simply that they may stand as an example of the carelessness and incapacity with which our movement has to deal.

Neither my time nor my knowledge permits my excursion into other fields. I am informed that the problem is pressing in orphan asylums and juvenile institutions of all kinds and with the success which is attending the open air treatment of the particular forms of tuberculosis to which childhood is prone it would seem that our responsibility is as great here as elsewhere.

It seems to be true that continued congregation of individuals under conditions of seclusion offers everywhere encouragement to the development of tuberculosis and the most watchful care is imperative if we are to prevent these conditions from becoming centres of infection to a careless and ignorant even if innocent society.

THE OPEN AIR TREATMENT FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

BY WOODS HUTCHINSON, A. M. M. D., REDLANDS, CAL.

It may be only the preference which each man at arms instinctively has for the weapon which best fits his own hand, but it does seem to me that the open air sanatorium ought to be made the heaviest gun and standard rifle combined, in the warfare against tuberculosis. First of all because it is the only method by which a majority of cases of the disease can be permanently arrested. I say this deliberately and with full knowledge of the

admirable alleviations of symptoms and permanent improvement which can be obtained by treating patients in their own homes.

The sanatorium is superior to the best private treatment that can be given not only in the high percentage of its cures, but also in the overwhelming permanence of them. It is almost impossible to make a patient, whether he belong to the class of the foolish rich or the stupid poor—and they are about equal—follow out the discipline, obey the rules and remain under control long enough to push the treatment to its fullest possible results, in a private home. You have to fight not only the patient himself, who is a handful, yes an armful, but all his well-meaning relatives and every dear old mother in Israel in the neighborhood who on the strength of having had ten children, and lost five of them, is believed more competent than any doctor to advise about little matters like diet, bathing, exposure, etc., that he will catch his death of cold sitting out, or sleeping out in those draughts or that all those eggs will make him bilious; or that he ought to get up and expand his lungs; or that such a rapid gain in flesh is unhealthy.

Patients can be cured in their own homes, but even under the best and most favorable surroundings such cures are often only a temporary hemming in within a wall of fibron, of from one to a dozen colonies of the invaders, who only wait an opportunity to break through the cordon and attack the tissues of their host. Moreover the sanatorium treatment is more economical because it takes much less time. As much improvement can be got in one week, under sanatorium treatment, as is usually possible in a month under the most careful, open-air treatment in private homes under the most favorable of circumstances.

The reasons are two-fold. First, patients are put under conditions so ideal as to exposure, food, freedom from observation, and the visits of kind but troublesome friends, that they can with difficulty be realized in the very best of private homes or grounds. It is really surprising how great is the practical difficulty of getting a patient to carry out the open-air treatment at home, from his shrinking from seeming to make a spectacle of himself for the curious among his friends and passers-by.

The second and not least weighty reason is, that when once

you have established a group of patients beginning to improve, and believing in the discipline, they will take the new patient in hand and train him into line with a fervency which needs checking rather than encouraging.

It is not too much to say on the basis of the latest German statistics, that the majority of arrests secured in private homes are temporary; the majority of those in sanatoria are permanent.

Another reason why the sanatorium method should be relied upon as a chief factor in our campaign, is that it is a methodical step in the direction of health, vigor, happiness and enjoyment of life. It is the getting away from the house obsession, the idea that indoors is the natural dwelling place of the race, the relic of the cave men and of the fortress of the Middle Ages. While fully recognizing the value and necessity of the magnificent work being done in treating the tuberculous poor in their homes, teaching them how to strive for more healthful methods of living and to protect themselves against the spread of the disease, I believe that such work is a mere make-shift and should be only regarded as the stepping stone to the transporting of all these cases to open air surroundings. Further, I believe it is in one sense a mistake in principal to endeavor to treat these people in their own homes, especially while they remain engaged in their occupations, for we are thereby encouraging them and making it possible for them to remain in conditions which should never be tolerated as the environment of human beings. Most of the work spent in improving the slum would be better spent in abolishing it altogether. Nor is this merely a castle to harbor one's roseate dreams. Years ago during my student days in London, no less a hard-headed body than the London County Council decided that it would build no more modern tenements or blocks for the housing of the poor within the limits of the city proper; but that when it broke up a slum that slum would be wiped out of existence, and turned into parks, streets, open spaces or business buildings, and the former inhabitants provided for in a colony out in the suburbs, upon an electric or steam road, giving rapid transit at low fares. The Peabody trust has also come to the same conclusion within years. Just as French cookery is said to be the rendering attractive and edible that which should never be eaten, so much of our work in

the improvement of the slums has been in the direction of making tolerable an environment which should never be tolerated for a moment for human beings. The slum, like Carthage, "*delenda est.*" It is the slum surroundings which have made these poor people tuberculous, and instead of being encouraged to remain in them, they should be got out of them at the very earliest opportunity and encouraged to remain out.

But some one will say, "Look at the enormous expense," and this brings me to the most weighty reason for the preference of the outdoor form of the sanatorium, in the tent, and that is its inexpensiveness. On a recent tour of inspection of the sanatoria of the middle west and the east, made by my friend and colleague, Dr. Luther Stevens, of Des Moines, Iowa, and myself, we found on comparing notes at the end of our trip, that the one thing which impressed us most discouragingly was the enormous individual expense per patient which seemed to be thought necessary for the equipment of these institutions. This we found to range from $1,000 to $3,000 per capita. No city or municipality seemed to dream of attempting to establish a sanatorium with less than from $50,000 to $250,000.

In view of the fact that two-thirds of the money which is spent in constructing permanent buildings for the cure of the consumptives is spent in overcoming the fact that they *are* buildings, this seems a regrettable waste.

This is by no means the desire of the devoted men who are conducting and managing these institutions, but because of two reasons: One is that in institutions supported by private benevolence, it is easy to get money for attractive cottages and beautiful buildings; and, similarly, in state-supported institutions, big, expensive buildings, affording a neat contract and a rake-off for the friends of the politicians, are almost *sine qua non* to the obtaining of the appropriation.

When we further consider that patients could be accommodated in tents, inclusive of the cost of the land, the providing of a supply of water, and the building of a central cottage for the staff, at an expense ranging from $125 to $200 per patient, it will be seen what a useless obstacle the expense equipments are to the rapid spread of the sanatorium idea. This case has been demon-

strated repeatedly, but nowhere more notably than by Dr. Pettit in his splendid tent colony at Ottawa, Illinois, under the auspices of the Illinois State Medical Society. Here is a colony of forty tents, which has been established at an expense of a little more than $150 per patient, including all equipment, rent of land and water supply, and it is made to pay its way supporting itself on a charge of $12.00 per week, Dr. Pettit's services, of course, being given free.

The experience in our own small, local tent sanatorium here is an illustration of what may be done in any city of more than 10,000 population in any climate in the United States. About a year ago, while Secretary of the Oregon State Board of Health, it appeared to me that the best and most effective method of educating the public and arousing them to a campaign against tuberculosis, was to establish an object lesson in the form of an open air sanatorium, to demonstrate that tuberculosis was curable, and curable in this climate. At that time there was an almost universal skepticism upon this point; not merely the laity, but also the profession having no confidence in the possibilities of the wet Oregon climate for the cure of tuberculosis. A committee was accordingly appointed by the State Board of Health, and another by the local medical society, of both of which I happened to be chairman. Some of the prominent business men and philanthropic women of Portland were approached and induced to lend their support to the enterprise. Eighteen volunteers were secured, which in addition to the original committee of six, formed the board of trustees of the sanatorium, and it was incorporated as a benevolent institution. Before the articles of incorporation were completed, subscription lists were circulated and the sum of $3,000 was raised. Fourteen acres of land were secured about five miles south of Portland, within ten minutes' walk of an electric car line, situated upon a high bluff overlooking the Willamette river, at a cost of $1,800. The land was covered with dense brush and small timber with a rough, rock surface, but with good drainage, some timber breaking the cold winds on the northeast and southwest exposures.

Clearing and laying out the walks and roadways cost about $700. A water supply was secured from a good spring about a

quarter of a mile away by means of a gasoline engine, at a cost of about $1,000. A small cook shanty was erected, a group of six tents built and the institution was opened for business on the 5th of January, 1905, with three patients, a nurse and a cook. The struggle of the early days in getting a staff of workers was something terrible. Most of the nurses who applied for the position, when actually confronted with the situation, were afraid to go out on account of possible infection, and if they happened to consult their family physician when in a state of indecision, they promptly decided against it.

Our first cases were all of the third stage, but gradually we began to get more suitable cases, the colony began to grow, until by the middle of May it had increased to 25 tents with 35 patients, a resident physician, two nurses, a Japanese cook and four other servants. Up to this time 81 patients have been received for a greater or less length of time. Of these 47 were third stage, many of them being received simply because they had come a distance of from two to five hundred miles to get the last chance for their lives, and we had not the heart to refuse it to them. This class of cases has given us most gratifying and unexpected results; of the 47 in the seven months, two had had complete arrest of the disease, with return to occupations. In the second stage, the results have been much more satisfactory; of the 15 second stage cases, five have made complete arrests of the disease with return to work, three others are greatly improved, and two others are improving, so that we have had an actual recovery rate of thirty per cent. Of the first stage cases, while fewer in number, namely, thirteen, five have recovered completely with disappearance of all symptoms and return to work, four more are rapidly recovering, and two others are getting on more than commonly well.

To sum up, out of a total of seventy-five cases received up to the first of July, there have been seven complete recoveries, that is an arrest of all symptoms and return to occupation; they are still under observation, however. Thirteen have markedly improved, and ten moderately improved; so that we feel that it has certainly been demonstrated that as good results are obtainable in this climate as in any other in the world.

The expense to date has been between $6,500 and $7,000; all patients occupying tents, and we have a six-room cottage for the staff. We are prepared to accommodate forty patients; and have a staff, including house physician, a superintendent, and six other employes and attendants.

The method of treatment is simply open air and overfeeding. The day opens with a quart of milk and from three to six raw eggs; then at eight o'clock breakfast of bacon, cooked eggs, milk, sometimes fish, or any other food suitable for the breakfast of a good, healthy consumptive. At 10:30 a luncheon is served of raw eggs, milk, nuts and fruit. At one o'clock they have their dinner of hot meats, vegetables, fruits and puddings; at 4:30 another milk and egg luncheon, and at six o'clock supper of either cold or hot meat, some suitable hot vegetable or cheese dish; and those who will take them are given eggs and milk again at bed time, nine o'clock.

VIII.

Visiting Nursing.

REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON VISITING NURSING.

BY MISS JANE ELIZABETH HITCHCOCK, CHAIRMAN.

The district or visiting nurse has long been recognized for her usefulness in the homes of the poor. Where illness has further complicated the difficulties of honest livelihood in its struggle with poverty, the strength-giving force of a trained nurse has not failed of recognition. Probably every city in the Union is provided with such nurses, and small villages, particularly of the manufacturing sort, have found the need of their services.

In the past few years both the nurse and the public have awakened to realize that she has a more inclusive service to render, although perhaps not a better one, than simply that of ministering to the sick and caring for the dying. Schools of nursing are recognizing that the women they send forth from their walls should go with a sense of their duty as public servants as well as their consciousness of technical skill. Hence they are introducing into their curricula more of the general knowledge of peoples and conditions. The women who are leaving the seclusion of the hospitals are increasingly feeling their duty as citizens. More and more of the intelligence of the profession is going out along lines of social service. It was a visiting nurse, Miss Lillian D. Wald, who, twelve years ago, having responded to a call born within herself to live in neighborliness with her sick, saw her opportunity to do more than heal their bodies, saw that conditions of living, housing, etc., helped to make or destroy both health and character. She was hence emboldened to present herself to the New York Department of Health, and ask their recognition of her efforts. A department

badge and authority to enforce sanitary measures were given to her. This was the first connection of a nurse with the outdoor work of a public department. Now it is not unusual to find her an assistant in local health boards, or in tenement-house inspection work. A few years later this same woman had experience with children undergoing long exclusion from school because of slight illness of a contagious character. Observing that a few visits from a nurse could easily rectify the situation, she conceived of the existing system of nurses in daily attendance at public schools. We will not touch upon this here, as we are to hear later in the evening from Miss Rogers of the success of the method now in operation in New York City.

As this is the age of specialists, so we find our visiting nurse falling into this line and learning, that she too, has her limitations and can do better service by accepting them. In seasons of epidemic, like some of our recent struggles with typhoid and yellow fever, the visiting nurse force has played an active part. But she is not called in emergencies only, for now that the war against the "white plague" is being waged hot and furiously, the visiting nurse, giving care and advice, is an indispensable agent in the fight. In New York City there are twenty-one (21) nurses giving their entire time to the care of tuberculous patients, instructing in the intelligent care of the sufferer and the methods that should be used to effectively prevent the spread of the disease. It has been proven that where there is insufficient hospital space for the isolation of the common contagious diseases — scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles and the like — the visiting nurse is of great usefulness. Taking the precaution of daily fumigation of dresses, bags, gowns, etc., she can go from home to home where the same class of diseases occurs, and can do much in the way of proper nursing and instruction. The eyes of a mother may be opened to the value of daily inunctions to prevent the scattering of desquamated particles. It may be a new thought to her, but she can be taught to understand the hazard to one who drinks from a contaminated cup, or the danger to the neighbor of her who shakes infected bedding from the window. These thoughts, that have almost become axioms to you who are able to read the

literature of the day, must be brought home by daily example and oft-repeated precept to the busy, care-burdened tenement-house mother.

The responsibility placed upon the shoulders of the nurse is heavy and oft times bewildering. Although she has the great advantage of having been called into the family circle in the midst of the crisis for the relief of which the sufferer is ready to unburden himself of all he may possess, still, she has at the same time the difficult task of keeping well balanced the present need and the causes that have produced that need. The natural, professional instinct of bodily relief must, of course, be responded to at once. That condition relieved, and the story of daily life and habits having come gradually to the knowledge of the nurse during her visits, she has gained information and influence that should lead to a friendship extending beyond the days of sickness. In the pressure of professional work one is apt to feel, that if the present crisis is passed and the family once more at its normal level, the care in that particular quarter may cease until the "case" is again reported and the family again in trouble. Nurses are probably no more prone than are other workers in special lines to see their specialty only and to be blind to other features. It is, however, not uncommon for them to overlook the possibility of uplift in other directions, or, having observed it, to attempt giving the aid themselves instead of acting the part of connecting link between the need and the agency especially adapted to supplying that need. Those who are especially interested in the development of this line of work are glad to welcome the dawn of particular preparation for those who are entering the field of visiting nursing. Schools of nursing are seeking lecturers from those who can give to them of their wide, practical experience in social problems, and the schools of philanthropy on their side are giving the nurse consideration. These courses embrace the most helpful lectures that are now given at the schools, and will also probably include practical experience in connection with some of the well established nursing organizations.

The world has been wont to look upon the nurse as a reliever of bodily ills, and in some degree as an assistant in

solving the social questions. There is another aspect that is not often touched upon and yet has large possibilities; namely, her economic value when considered in connection with the crowded hospitals and their increased deficits. There are certain kinds of illnesses that can be treated only with the facilities of a hospital at hand, and there are certain people whose surroundings are such that attempted care in the home or in the boarding house is a fiasco. For such cases as these the hospitals should always have room. There is another class of people, honest, self-respecting, industrious, who are happily and comfortably provided for while health and strength are theirs. Perhaps they are able to meet some part of the extra strain, the doctor's daily visits and the medicines, but the nursing may be an expense that is just too much to be borne. Perhaps there is not room in the already crowded home to bring in another person — and she, too, a stranger. In such situations as this the visits from the district nurse at stated intervals, a systematizing of the sick room, a clarifying of the doctor's orders, an hour twice or thrice a day of careful nursing and perhaps a special nurse established at the bedside on the night of the crisis, will often save a patient from the hospital and leave the place to one who perhaps has no home and no one to give care. Convalescents, who would do better with the stimulus of family life and healthy people about them, are retained in the wards because of some bit of minor surgery that the visiting nurse could easily manage on her daily rounds. Recently, there came to the notice of the writer a young woman discharged from a general hospital as incurable. She was advised to make application to a home for incurables, but her husband, as young and full of unreasoning hope as herself said, "No. We will ask the help of the district nurse, and she and I will take care of you." Youthful courage and persistence is accomplishing more than the "Professor" had deemed possible. The home for incurables is spared an inmate and the little family is reclaiming its own.

These are not isolated cases. They are to be found in every district. Much of the hospital deficit problem would be solved if more thought were given to consideration of the best way to help the sick poor care for themselves in their homes.

Among the unsolved problems of the nursing profession perhaps the most puzzling one at present is how to provide adequate nursing for the moderate wage earner. There is a large body of citizens who do not need gratuitous service, and yet are quite unable to sustain for any length of time the heavy outlay of a private nurse. The paid hourly nurse has already made some headway. In several centers nurses may be found working by the hour at a specified rate, her methods being much the same as the district nurse except for the financial basis. Miss Rutherford of Baltimore, who has had some experience along this line writes: "All kinds of people have found us useful: the doctor who needed a nurse for an hour or two in his office or for a minor operation: the chronic invalid with kind friends to do much for him but whose day and night were eased by the hourly morning and evening visit when the bath and the rub were skillfully given: the woman living in the boarding-house with no room for a regular nurse, and to whom the expense of both the nurse and her board would have been out of the question: the private nurse tired out with a long case and unable to get air and rest without a responsible person to leave in charge: the careful mother with the sick child needing some one to assist her in carrying out the special order that would have agitated her: the nervous retiring woman shrinking from having her own loved ones dress the chronic sore. All of these have found the hourly nurse useful and perhaps to none has she been of such assistance as to the private nurse herself. Speaking from a year's experience as an hourly nurse, there seems to me nothing more delightful in the profession. The constant out-of-door life is most healthful and the patients, after the unskilled care of the home people, welcome the nurse who comes in for the hour bringing with open arms the freshness of the outside world. All over the country there are isolated nurses doing this work, and registries are sending out nurses to single cases. We think, however, that in order to be of real benefit to the community certain nurses should do this line of work exclusively, receiving their calls from a central registry. When possible the nurse should receive a stated salary, the fees from the patients being paid in to the central association."

Another and somewhat similar plan has been suggested by Jamieson B. Hurry, M. D., in a pamphlet recently issued by him. His suggestion is for benefit associations. The payment of a specified sum per year should entitle the payee to the assistance of an hourly nurse under certain restrictions as to chronic cases, contagious diseases and the like. The yearly dues of such an association should amount in the aggregate to the nurse's salary, the running expenses and a surplus sufficiently large to permit of assistance during seasons of epidemic, or period of extra stress from other causes.

Visiting nursing in America is comparatively young. Although the first record of provision for the care of the sick poor in their homes dates back to 1813 to the Ladies' Benevolent Society of Charleston, South Carolina, still the first group of nurses that was set apart for this work was a branch of the New York City Mission begun in 1877. Miss Waters' statistical statement, copies of which you will find in the hall, is an incomplete record of the visiting nurses in the United States at the present time. This work was begun under the impression that the body of nurses engaged in this line of work was small. As new associations are constantly coming to light in response to Miss Waters' appeal, it is evident that the end is not yet reached, and that this report can only be considered as partly complete.

SUMMARY.

No. of places having associations	120
No. of associations	172
No. of nurses employed	446

NEW YORK.

No. of associations	22
No. of nurses	142

BOSTON.

No. of associations	6
No. of nurses	23

BALTIMORE.

No. of associations	5
No. of nurses	18

PHILADELPHIA.

No. of associations	4
No. of nurses	21

SAN FRANCISCO.

No. of associations	5
No. of nurses	12

CHICAGO.

No. of associations	2
No. of nurses	29

WASHINGTON.

No. of associations	2
No. of nurses	9

THE VISITING NURSE AS AN ECONOMIC FACTOR.

BY MISS LUCY B. FISHER, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

Sentimentalists call the visiting nurse an angel, religionists look upon her as a martyr, while in reality she is neither angel nor martyr. She belongs to that rapidly increasing force of privileged workers whose fundamental purpose is to place the dependent class back into its normal position in society where it may again become productive.

Miss Mary Richmond says in "Friendly Visiting Among the Poor," that about one-fourth of all the poverty that has come within the scope of charitable investigation is directly caused by sickness." There falls then to the visiting nurse to share more than one-fourth of this line of charitable work, for she not only has the problem to meet of how to make this fourth of the dependent class well, but how to diminish her fraction of the work by seeking out the causes of illness and finding their remedy.

The preparation to undertake such a task is more than the training schools and experience in private nursing give. It is not uncommon to hear a nurse, who has not the slightest knowledge of district nursing, say, "I am tired of private work and

would like to do district nursing. Do you know of any society that wants a nurse." It would be just as reasonable for a general medical practioner to hope to become an occulist or an aurist or a nerve specialist without any special training, as for a nurse to expect to do district nursing without any preparatory work. The training schools are beginning to send their nurses out for a few months during their course, with visiting nurses in established societies, but as long as there are societies that engage nurses who have no conception of the wider outlook of the visiting nursing work the value of this training must of necessity be very uneven. The department on Visiting Nursing to be established in the school of philanthropy will have the immediate effect of raising the standard of district nursing for it will lessen the confidence of the nurse to undertake the work without previous preparation.

In establishing visiting nursing work a choice should be made of a nurse who has proven her capacity for this specialized line of nursing in a well established nursing organization that has taken its place in society as a scientific philanthropy.

A nurse carefully chosen should then be allowed full power to carry on this important work for which she has prepared herself and not be hampered by directions from a board of managers which has not the slightest conception of the limitations and the scope of visiting nursing. Only the other day the error of such interference was demonstrated in one of the largest cities where we as a rule find the best methods of organization. A nurse came in great distress to one of the nurse directors of another society and said, "What am I to do, Mrs. A. has made me drop my district work and put me on a special case and I do not know what all of my other patients are going to do without my care." The special case was a pet of the lady manager. This interruption of the regular work occurs at any time in that society. The fact that a board of managers is a necessity in an organization is indisputable; but that the range of its usefulness has certain limitations is strongly evident to the nursing profession and also to workers in philanthropy whose outlook is wide enough to realize that a profession should naturally be governed by members from its own body. The visiting nursing societies in the

United States that represent the most advanced work carry out this policy in their organizations.

The salaries paid to visiting nurses are in the majority of cases put on a charitable and not professional basis. Not many weeks ago an application was made in San Francisco for a visiting nurse by a society not many miles away. The salary offered was $40 a month and the nurse to be engaged was to obey a long list of rules. The hours on duty would have made a union man shudder. The recipient of the letter, a visiting nurse, wrote that she thought anyone consecrated enough to her work to accept a salary of $40 a month would not need any restrictive rules, and she personally knew of no one to send.

Visiting nurses' salaries range all the way from $30 to $75 a month, with an allowance of one month's vacation. In a number of societies living expenses are paid in nurses' homes and settlements and a salary of $25 a month is given. The Society for Ethical Culture in New York and the Chicago Visiting Nurses' Association pay $70. Nurses engaged by the city as a rule receive $75, but the large majority of salaries come between the two extremes. A number of organizations that pay the non-professional salary of $50 and $60 a month, attribute the short terms of service of their nurses to the fact that there is not sufficient remuneration given.

Nurses realize that they run greater risks to their health than women in any other profession and know that they should be able to save for the rainy day; also that there should be a margin left to pay for amusements which are essential in every worker's life, but especially necessary for the visiting nurse whose work carries her always among the unfortunate. If she sees only one side of life continually she is apt to lose all sense of its right proportions. A short term of service is an inestimable loss to a society as the worker's usefulness increases with each year's added experience.

The care of contagious cases should be left to the Department of Public Health which may either remove the patients to the city hospitals or in certain diseases care for them in their own homes. New York City's health department has a corps of 117

nurses to care for contagious cases in hospitals and in the patients' homes.

If a society can afford a special nurse for contagious cases the work may be undertaken, otherwise the nurse runs the risk of being herself a carrier of contagion.

The statistical value of the number of cases visited daily by a nurse is very meagre as some nurses work in congested districts while others encompass the entire city.

It is a well established custom in the representative visiting nurses' societies to accept fees from the patients, to be determined entirely by the patient's resources. The Chicago Association last year averaged $100 a month from small contributions which varied from five to twenty-five cents a visit. These payments help to maintain the patient's self respect. It is doubtful whether the most skilful nursing would compensate for the loss of this quality of character.

The visiting nurse is connected with a greater number of organizations than any other social worker. There are societies, such as the Chicago Visiting Nurse Association, the Henry Street Nurses' Settlement in New York, and the Instructive Visiting Nurse Associations of Baltimore, Boston and Cleveland, and many others that are essentially nursing organizations, but besides these, visiting nurses are connected with charity organization societies, social settlements, deaconesses associations, churches, dispensaries, milk stations, day nurseries, civic improvement clubs, department stores, factories and boards of health. The latter engage nurses as sanitary inspectors, for contagious diseases and for schools. The connection of the nurse with so many organizations is one of the strongest evidences of her importance as a sociological factor.

In order to take her place in social work that the choice of these organizations indicates is essential, she must be familiar with the sanitary laws of her city and the possibilities and limitations of its public and private institutions. Knowledge of the city's sanitary laws must include those governing the cubic air space of sleeping rooms, housing in basements, plumbing and the removal of garbage; those regulating the prevention of the spread of disease, particularly the laws relating to tuberculosis; the laws

also that prohibit unsafe constructions such as stairways and sidewalks.

The visiting nurse's work stands closely related to charity organization societies, hospitals, dispensaries, boards of health, public baths, schools for defective children, societies for the prevention of cruelty to children, the Needle Work Guild, day nurseries, milk stations, fruit and flower missions, summer homes, fresh air funds, and homes for dependent children. A visiting nurse who attempts to do her work apart and without relation to the many very necessary established relief agencies, shows about the same degree of intelligence that a man does when he attempts to fight a crowd of ruffians single handed. The failure of the nurse to do effective work may be calculated upon as surely as the man's loss in the uneven fight.

The visiting nurse's influence suggests the effect produced by a pebble that is thrown into a pond — it sets in motion one circle after another until the smoothness of the water is changed into innumerable rhythmic circles. From the bedside of her patient to the home, from the home to the neighborhood, and from the neighborhood to the city itself the nurse's influence is felt in cities where she is working on the basis that she is the city's guardian as well as her patient's — that she has it within her power to protect the independent class from becoming dependants and non-producers.

This force that the nurse has the power to wield only exists where she recognizes that the personal factor must enter into her work at the patient's bedside. Helen Bosanquet in "Strength of The People," says: "The real man is the mind and if we have left this out of account all our efforts show themselves worse than useless, and our gifts are dissipated before our eyes." Coming as the nurse does in daily contact with her patient, with the opportunity to relieve physical discomfort and suffering, the nurse who recognizes that the man is the mind acquires an influence over her patient that is enormous.

Miss Harriet Fulmer of Chicago, says the nurses in their society acquire such a firm footing in each home that the inmates follow and acknowledge the nurse's advice and authority without question, and it is a matter of congratulation that physicians

and philanthropic workers will often ask the nurse to help, where their efforts have been in vain.

The efforts of the nurses in the United States to put their patients back into their normal positions in society, and to prevent the door of independence from being closed upon the little ones when they arrive at the wage-earning period, has met with such splendid results that the triumph of the battlefield is not to be compared to this one. The physicians all over the United States are enthusiastic co-workers with the nurses in this great undertaking. The most noted physicians and surgeons are giving their services to this economic warfare. One of the nurses in San Francisco has been fortunate enough to have seen in her six years' experience as district nurse six hopeless cases, according to the judgment of the physicians in charge, make good recoveries under the skilled care of other physicians called upon to attend the patients.

The cases where eyes and limbs and lives have been saved by the timely intervention of the district nurses are so many that they are not easily reckoned. Miss Frieda Siekmann, one of the City Mission and Tract Society nurses, reports the following case: "I found a little boy who had run a nail in his foot several days before. The mother had to go to work, and left the child in the care of a kindly neighbor, who said she understood all about 'them things,' and that she knew quite as much as any doctor. She had dressed, poulticed and doctored the wound after a fashion of her own. I soon saw the dangerous condition and took him at once to a dispensary. The surgeon in probing found that the wound extended to the bone and to save the boy's foot, he advised my putting the child in a hospital, as there was danger of blood poisoning. I found the mother as soon as she had returned from work, got her consent and moved him the next day to a hospital, and the boy's foot was saved."

Dr. William S. Baer, in his report of Miss Grace Smith's work in the orthopedic clinic connected with the Johns Hopkins Hospital, says: "The greatest service the visiting nurse renders is in finding these cases in the early stage of the disease. If left to themselves amid unhygienic conditions the disease progresses too far to make a cure possible.

The Thomas Wilson Sanitarium of Baltimore sends out nurses to instruct mothers in the care and feeding of their infants, in order to prevent and cure the prevalent intestinal diseases, especially common in the summer months. During that period five nurses devote themselves to this special line of nursing. Four milk dispensaries are established in connection with the sanitarium. From these dispensaries is distributed modified milk at a minimum price. Miss Gertrude Miller, the nurse in charge of this visiting nurse work finds the instructive part of her nursing one of its most important features. She says: "It seems to make no difference how poor the family may be the baby is always overfed. The nurse frequently finds a baby six or seven months old being fed on the same coarse diet the father and mother enjoy. One baby four days old was found being fed on oatmeal, crackers and coffee. It rarely seems to occur to the mother that milk is the proper food for the baby, so when one was remonstrated with for giving her three months old baby coffee she replied in the most surprised way, 'Why, do you think tea would be better?'"

The nurse's dependence upon the many institutions is realized in almost every case she visits. The nurse who sees simply a patient who needs a bath or the dressing of an ulcer, and does not take a mental grasp of the conditions that are present in the home, only understands the first rudiments of visiting nursing. The nurse who went into a home and found a consumptive woman with a drunken husband who was abusive, where there were only two small children, dirty and hungry looking, to care for her, where everything was dirty and disorderly, showed a total lack of appreciation of the remedies to be applied when she brought sputum cups, sheets and pillow cases, a hot water bottle, an old comforter and some malted milk, and gave the patient a bath. The remedial agents that should have been applied were a hospital for the mother where she would have been protected from the abuse of her drunken husband and have been given sufficient nourishment, an institution for the children where they would have been guarded from their drunken father and the disease of the mother, and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, if the consent of the parents to place the children could not be obtained.

From the patient to the family is not a long step, in fact the

one can hardly be cared for without considering the other, as the nurse must depend upon the family to care for the patient in her absence. Here by demonstration the family as well as the neighbors who come in to watch the nurse at her work are receiving clinical instruction in the care of the sick. The most valuable lessons are given by example rather than by precept. The physical condition of the family is considered by the nurse and its members are taught how to protect themselves against disease, and are often shown the proper preparation of food. The children with physical signs that suggest adenoids, defective eyesight or hearing are marched off to throat, eye and ear specialists.

The nurse insists upon the cleanliness of the home. One nurse refused to go up a dirty flight of stairs until they had been swept, making her fresh uniform the excuse for not doing so. She made another family remove a dirty carpet from the floor before she went in to attend her patient.

The neighborhood responsibility of the visiting nurse is a great one. It is there where the nurse who is thoroughly alive to her opportunities for preventing disease may do some of her most effective work.

Miss Johnson in her admirable report of the Cleveland Nurse Association gives a careful summary of the character of the population in each district where the nurses work, which includes the nationality, economic, hygienic and social status of each district. With such a careful knowledge of the neighborhood there is brought to bear upon the nurses' work an intelligence and interest unknown to the nurse who looks upon her patient as a separate factor and not a part of a whole.

What a nurse's neighborhood work may result in was well exemplified in an instance that occurred in San Francisco. The nurse on her rounds came across a court where there was a stairway that had been burnt so that the props were badly charred and yet it was still being used. The plumbing in the yard was in a frightful state and the court was in a filthy condition. The nurse requested the dwellers in the court to clean up and gave them a glimpse of her Board of Health badge. She reported the stairway to the Board of Public Works and the plumbing to the Board

of Health. On her arrival the next morning she found the plumbers and the carpenters hard at work and the yard cleanly swept.

The nurse's civic work has been finely demonstrated in New York, Chicago, Baltimore, Boston, Cleveland, and in many other cities where the nurses are fighting tuberculosis. They are using all of their powers to prevent the infection of healthy persons by not only instructing the patients that come under their care of the modes of infection, but by searching for the cases that through ignorance and negligence have not been reported to them.

Under the special tuberculosis work started last July by the Cleveland Visiting Nurse Association the number of tubercular cases visited is eight times greater than before this special effort was made.

The Baltimore visiting nurses last year traced the source of infection of eighteen cases of typhoid fever to the uncleanly and unsanitary surroundings of a dairy supplying milk to the establishment in which these young women were employed. As soon as the matter was reported to the health department an investigation was made and in consequence the dairy was closed and the factory put in good sanitary condition.

The nurses' work is so closely identified with the Health Department that in San Francisco the visiting nurses have been made auxiliary health inspectors. They have the power to serve papers on delinquent landlords and their large badges have nearly always the desired effect of bringing the law breakers to terms.

In another instance one of the nurses found thirteen layers of wall paper on the wall of one of the rooms her patient was using, and that the plumbing of the house and adjoining tenements was in a shocking state of dissolution. The nurse felt that she had discovered sufficient cause for the children to have passed through the ravages of smallpox, measles, whooping cough and pneumonia. She followed up the Board of Health with a persistency that would have done credit to a political heeler. It resulted in the condemnation of the plumbing and the thirteen germ laden layers of wall paper. The families that move into these tenements for the next few years, are protected in a degree, from unsanitary conditions.

The nurses have been particularly zealous in having accumu-

lations of refuse removed. One of the nurses had a pile of rubbish on a back porch pointed out to her. It had been allowed to remain there for two months. The agent paid no attention to the demand made by the nurse to have it removed. So she went to the owner of the house, a prosperous dry goods merchant; the reception she received was not a pleasant one but the rubbish was removed within two days.

One of the nurses had her attention called to a wretched hovel by a patient who asked her to visit a sick woman living there. The Board of Health was immediately told of its unsanitary condition. Within a short period the nurse had the keen satisfaction of seeing the place torn down.

It is a well known law in mechanics that the strength of the whole is only that of the weakest part. What protection has a city from disease even though its intelligent class obeys the laws of sanitation, if its weaker class, weaker because less intelligent, is not instructed in these same laws?

The classes on hygiene for working girls and women, conducted by visiting nurses is another means of influence used in the prevention of disease in our cities. The City Mission and Tract Society and the Henry Street Nurses' Settlement of New York, the Baltimore, Richmond and Orange Visiting nurses are giving these courses of lectures.

If this economic warfare is to win in its fight, it must be conducted in a scientific way. The army must be formed of trained workers, the number a large one, and in every city in the Union these guardians of the public health should be on duty — watchful, alert and keen to destroy the seeds of disease before their germination, and using all of their knowledge to eradicate the enemy where it has already gotten a foothold.

Is not this a task that should demand the services of the best types of women that are in the nursing profession to-day?

THE PHYSICIAN AND THE NURSE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

BY MISS LINA L. ROGERS, SUPERVISING SCHOOL NURSE, DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, NEW YORK CITY.

Medical school inspection dates as far back as 1842, when the laws of Paris ordered "that all public schools should be visited by a physician, who, in addition to inspecting the buildings, should also inspect the general health of the children."

The system since then has undergone many changes and developments, greatly enhancing its value and efficiency.

Boston inaugurated a system of daily inspection in 1894, the result of an outbreak of diphtheria. In 1895 Chicago followed with nine inspectors for the whole city, giving each doctor about thirty schools to look after.

In October, 1896, owing to epidemics of measles and scarlet fever, the Department of Health of New York City assigned an inspector to investigate the conditions of the schools. Visits were made to those schools from which cases of contagious disease had been reported and especially to the classes from which the child had been excluded. Those who were not in school were visited at their homes by the inspector to learn the reason of their absence. The result of this investigation showed that a number were ill with contagious disease, contracted in the class rooms, where the conditions favored infection on account of the overcrowding, bad air, etc. Some children attended school while the home was infected. Many times children were found in school with diphtheria in an advanced stage, it having been supposed by the teachers that the child only had sore throat and but little attention having been paid to it, until the child was critically ill. In other instances, children had returned to school during desquamation, after scarlet fever, a period which is not only dangerous to the child itself, but to all others. A case is cited of a boy pulling large pieces of skin from his hands and passing them around among his classmates as souvenirs, which they verily proved to be.

The outcome of this investigation resulted in a special appropriation being made which enabled the Department of Health to appoint one hundred and fifty inspectors at the rate of $30 per month.

In March of the following year, 1897, each inspector was given two or three schools and his duty was to report daily between 9 and 10 A. M. at each school, examining all children sent to him by the principal or teachers. Then only contagious diseases were taken charge of by the inspector. When a case of scarlet fever or measles was discovered, a telephone message was sent to the Department of Health and a diagnostician was sent at once so that the diagnosis might be confirmed, and the proper directions given, such as isolation of patient, care of others in family, etc. A postal card was sent to the principal of the school, informing him of the presence of contagious disease, and with instructions that all children of that family be excluded from school until termination of case; also, that they must not be readmitted until they could show properly signed certificates that premises had been fumigated and were free from contagion.

Other children with minor contagious diseases, such as ringworm, scabies, sore eyes and pediculosis, were sent home until proof of cure could be shown. Printed forms were filled in and given to each child to take home to his parents, stating the name of the disease. This ended the inspector's duty — *the objective point in this system was "exclusion."*

It will be seen that a large share of inspection fell upon the teachers in the class rooms, inasmuch as it was their duty to pick out the suspected cases and report them to the inspectors. In 1902 the system was reorganized and the inspectors were requested to make "routine inspections;" each class room in the school was visited once each week and every child was examined individually by the inspector. This, of course, relieved the teachers from selecting the suspected cases, a duty they frankly confessed they were not competent to perform. The physician's practised eye took in at a glance abnormal symptoms, and doubtful children were sent to the inspector's room for a more thorough examination. As a result of this the child was either returned to his class room or was sent home with his card.

It was found that under this new system fifteen to twenty children were excluded daily and that, in a single school, 300 children were out at one time. The serious depletion of the class room as the result of this thorough inspection, drew criticism from the official head of the Department of Education. To solve the complication that had arisen, the introduction of the school nurse was proposed by Miss Wald, of the Nurses' Settlement, who offered to arrange for a month's experiment.

The system had been in vogue in a small way in London (since 1893) through the efforts of Miss Honnor Norton, herself a trained nurse and a member of the London School Board.

In New York, with the consent of the Departments of Health and Education, the work of the experimental month was entrusted to me. I began by taking a group of four schools with an attendance of 8,671 children, in the crowded part of the city, spending an hour in each daily. The principals provided as dressing rooms the only available places that could be found, corners of the indoor playgrounds, the window-sills doing duty for tables.

All the necessary dressings, etc., including the basins used, were also furnished by the Nurses' Settlement.

The doctor in the school was consulted and arrangements were made for having those children needing treatment sent to the nurses' dressing room. This was done by means of cards on which was entered the name of every child requiring the nurse's care, the disease being indicated by numbers.

The Department of Health outlined a course of general treatment which is used throughout the schools; the Department of Education then agreed to provide the necessary supplies and has continued to do so.

At the appointed time each child was attended to as his needs required. Sore eyes were washed with boracic acid solution, ringworm scrubbed thoroughly with tincture of green soap and water, then with bichloride of mercury solution and finally painted over with collodion to prevent contagion. Other skin diseases were treated according to their condition. As soon as the children received treatment, they were returned to their class rooms. The

saving of school-time for the children was of the greatest importance.

When all the children had been attended to, and the dressing room put in order, a list of the children sent home was obtained from the clerk. The children who were suffering from serious disorders, too advanced to be cared for in the dressing room, were sent home and the name and address of each was taken. These were visited after school hours on the same day; necessary instructions were given in ample detail; wherever necessary, a demonstration was given, for many of the mothers who were seen proved to be, though kindly disposed, very ignorant of even the simplest and most elementary methods. For trachoma and unusually severe forms of other diseases (principally of the eyes and skin) the family physician was suggested. If the family were too poor to have a doctor, the dispensary was called upon, and addresses were furnished of the free clinics in the city. The unclean heads constituted about two-thirds of those excluded, and as soon as the mothers were enlightened as to the nature of the trouble and the remedy for it, they willingly obeyed orders and the child was allowed to return to school at once. All children excluded by reason of minor contagion (eye diseases, ringworm, scabies, favus, impetigo, and pediculosis) were allowed to return as soon as they could show proof of having begun treatment. Through the nurse's sympathy and willingness to give a helping hand and advice concerning the home, the mothers considered her a personal friend and were most willing to do whatever was requested.

At the end of a month of twenty school days (and six of these were Jewish holidays, when sometimes only 30 pupils out of 2,000 attended school) the result was more than satisfactory. Eight hundred and ninety-three (893) treatments had been given, 137 visits had been made to the homes, and 25 children returned to school, some of whom had been out whole terms for a slight skin trouble.

In November, the Department of Health being firmly convinced that this work completed the link in the chain of medical inspection, offered me an appointment as a regular member of the staff. During the month the work in the schools increased and

over 1,100 treatments were given. As the work developed, the nurse discovered in examining the unclean heads more extensive trouble, and many times the scalp was found covered with eczema and favus, the result of lack of care in combing and washing the heads. The increase of work within the school left less to be done outside, and there were not as many visits made; but as the visits to the home count for much as a social factor and educationally, they were continued as an important feature of the work.

In December, 1902, twelve nurses were appointed under my supervision. The work proved so far-reaching in its good results that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment appropriated $30,000 for the year 1903. This sum provided a staff of 27 nurses, each at a salary of $900 per year, who took charge of 131 schools with an attendance of 200,000 children.

With the introduction of the staff of nurses the old system of medical inspection was entirely reversed, so that, instead of its objective point being exclusion, it became the keeping of children in school under supervision and treatment.

When one considers how short the school life of the children of the working people is, it becomes essential that not one hour be lost if it can be helped. This is constantly kept before us and the nurses grow very keen in discovering children who are deprived of their schooling.

From the time of ancient Rome, Greece, and Egypt, when records show curative measures were employed in schools and colleges, through the preventive stage when modern medical inspection began, we have reached the stage of having the curative and the preventive measures combined, not only curing those with disease, but protecting the others. This is due to the presence of nurses in the schools.

Among the conditions found by the nurses in their daily rounds were many opportunities for being helpful. Walmer, a boy aged ten years, had never been allowed to go to school. He had a step-mother, father a drunkard. The boy was sent out at six in the morning to the Grand Central yards to steal coal and was beaten if he returned without a certain quantity. He was insufficiently clothed and fed. A step-brother about the same age

received all the mother's care. The case was reported to a suitable relief agency, but the nurse, meanwhile, found a friendly home for the boy before any further investigation was made and he is now happy.

In another house, a family of father, mother and six children were found living on one meal a day. This was an evening meal of baked beans or potatoes. The father, a hod-carrier, had been out of work for months. Tony, 9 years of age, was found in school with abscesses on his neck and so weak that he could hardly stand, having had nothing to eat since the day before. The nurse took him home, and when the above conditions were found, relieved the immediate wants. The teachers in the school, on hearing of the poverty, contributed five dollars at once, and the case was reported to the relief agency, who sent groceries and other necessaries. The nurse did not feel that her efforts were finished then, but found work for the oldest boy at $4.50 a week; the father got temporary employment, and a neighbor loaned the mother a sewing machine and work was found for her. Tony was placed under treatment at a hospital and had a plaster cast put on. These are but instances of what is constantly being done by the nurse, apart from the work which is required of her by the Department of Health.

The ideal system can only be obtained by having nurses in the schools. The statistics of the Department of Health from September, 1902, to September, 1903, show that 98 per cent. of the children previously excluded for medical reasons are retained in their class rooms since the advent of the trained nurses in the schools.

In 1904 the staff was increased to 38 nurses, which enabled us to cover 100 schools in Greater New York.

We have received from the principals most hearty co-operation, and many letters are received by the Department of Health expressing gratitude for the care taken of the children and the difference in the regular attendance as well as the standard of cleanliness secured. It is gratifying to report that the parents, with rare exceptions, are grateful for this attention and take pains to carry out whatever instruction is given.

About this time — 1904 — the London County Council took

charge of their school nurses, terminating arrangements with the different associations who provided nurses during the experimental stage. There is now quite a large staff of nurses in the schools in London and other cities in England.

In February of this year (1905), the work of the medical inspectors was again re-organized and "routine inspection" was made only once a month. As soon as the doctor indexed all the names of children needing attention or advice, the cards were turned over to the nurse and she was made rsponsible for every child until he was cured (in school). The doctor calls at the school every day and any emergency case is brought to his attention, the nurse taking care of it in the mean time. After the doctor's routine inspection is made, he proceeds to make a thorough physical examination of each child. The eyes are tested for defects of vision, headaches, squint, blurring, etc. The ear for deformity of external canal, discharges, defect in hearing. The teeth and hard palate are examined, adenoid growths looked for. The nasal condition is noted, whether the septum is deflected, occluding the anterior nasal spaces. A general record is made of the nutrition of the child, the glands, choreic symptoms, cardiac murmurs, pulmonary disease, mentality, and skin lesions. The spine, too, is carefully gone over, and any deformities are noted, as well as those of chest and extremities. In every instance, where irregularities are found, and the child fails to have treatment, reports are made and the nurse visits the home, explaining the condition and urging a more complete examination and treatment.

During the present year our staff has increased to 44 nurses, who look after the health of over 300,000 children, under the direction of the Department of Health.

On May 22nd, 1905, the nurses were requested to make routine inspection of the class rooms. They are now responsible for the general health and cleanliness of all school children under their control. Where there is any question of diagnosis the child is referred to the physician, who, in the meantime, is making the physical examination of each child, as has been described.

Since organizing our system of nurses in the schools, several cities have sent delegates to us to see our work with a view to

establishing their own system of inspection. Those who have adopted it and have nurses at work are Philadelphia, Baltimore and Cleveland. Boston, Rochester and Washington hope to follow in a short time.

A nurse, to be successful in the work, must have a fellow feeling for those among whom she is working, and who are dependent on her for good results. She must have an unlimited amount of tact, for she will meet all kinds of people. She must also be thorough in the minutest details, even though facilities are sometimes inadequate.

Apart from the recognition of the nurses' professional ability to do the work, it should be a source of no small gratification that the nurse can play so important a part in this essential service to the community.

THE DISTRICT NURSE IN CO-OPERATIVE WORK.

BY MISS MARIE R. JAMME, VISITING NURSE OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, MINNEAPOLIS.

To discuss the district nurse in co-operative work is to approach a subject offering so many possibilities, that it is difficult to determine just where to set one's limitations. Her position in the field of charitable endeavor is peculiarly her own. Her work has in it a double relationship: that which is purely professional in its relation to acute diseases and that which is social through its constructive and preventive work.

In the past few years organized district nursing has developed rapidly and along several lines. There are in different parts of the country, independent organizations, district nurses working in connection with city health departments, in the public schools under the board of education, and as special departments of charity organization societies. The latter method is the one followed in Minneapolis. The work there is a department of the Associated Charities and is under the direction of the Committee on District Nursing. The committee, composed entirely

of women, is responsible for raising the necessary funds, and for the general direction of the work. There are three nurses in the field, one of whom devotes all her time to tuberculous patients under the general direction of the Anti-tuberculosis Committee of the Associated Charities. Naturally there has existed from the first, the closest co-operation between the Associated Charities and the District Nurses, and as the work grows and becomes better known, the co-operation with other organizations is most encouraging.

The particular form of organization is a matter of minor importance. The essential thing is to have it adaptable to the particular needs of the community, and the question is, what shall be the nurse's relation of helpfulness to fellow workers who are looking at the same problem with just as much interest, if from a different point of view.

The gauge of a nurse's work in the eyes of the medical profession is usually in the technical application of her calling. From the standpoint of organized charity, however, we have come to believe that the influence of the work on the social side, plus professional skill is the important factor.

A district nurse enters the house with somewhat of an advantage over the ordinary social worker. She frequently comes at a time when sickness has had more or less of a subduing influence. The kind of service she offers has a tendency to establish immediate confidence. It also creates a sense of dependence which gives an unusual opportunity to get at the hidden springs of family life. Her training renders her alive to conditions on the physical side of the problem which would have strong bearing upon the social. We come to realize that medical treatment is often the foundation stone in social uplifting. In many homes there is no actual disease, only a pitiful degree of moral and physical apathy, due largely to unsanitary housing, insufficient food and a discouraging struggle for livelihood.

In such houses the nurse will probably encounter more than one worker. The charity agent may be there, regarding the family from the standpoint of adjustment and relief; the settlement worker, as harboring future citizens; the rental agent as unprofitable tenants or the probation officer as subjects for watch-

fulness. To them, the family is largely a social problem. With the visit of the nurse, it may still remain a social problem, but becomes possessed of a large medical element. Some slight physical ailment may be at the root of the father's apathy; the mother may be shiftless because she is too weak to be otherwise, or the boy or girl a constant truant because of some visional disturbance that makes school life unbearable. The uplifting of that family then becomes a question of physical cure and prevention without which the work of the charity agent and others would fail in its purpose.

It is this preventive element in district nursing which offers such a chance for general helpfulness. The acutely sick will always require the immediate attention of the nurse. To extend the benefits of their care to an entire family with a view to building up healthy bodies; to know just when and where to apply the ounce of prevention which will save the future pound of cure, is to give to district nursing the dignity of broad aims and to greatly increase its usefulness.

With this extended point of view naturally comes greater responsibility and the question arises, does the nurse entering the work, require special qualifications and is her general training a guarantee of success?

In the June number of the American Journal of Nursing, we have a very interesting letter from Mr. John M. Glenn of Baltimore, in which he lays before us a condition in social service which has a strong bearing upon this question. As he states it, "The failure on the part of workers to see the whole social point of view, to consider the relationship of a family to the community and the effect of example on other families in the neighborhood — that persons who have had special training in special lines do not understand what a thorough investigation of conditions means — that in the case of district nurses, they come to the work when they have not been long enough out of the training school, they have had a fine training, and are full of splendid enthusiasm, but have had little experience in the world. They have not studied the aims and the methods of others, so that when they step out of their own professional sphere, their efforts to relieve often give a set back to the efforts

of others who have had longer experience." Following up this thought, he adds, "Nurses should be taught to understand what thorough investigation means, its scope and its value, that they might give as much support and sympathy as they can to trained workers."

If we accept a broad and liberal interpretation of district nursing, it would seem that the successful nurse should possess a high standard of qualifications. She would need to be a woman broad in education and experience, with a power of observation, elastic enough to cover the question as a whole and possessing a spirit of liberal compromise. The nature of the work will often carry her into the field of other workers, where she will require clear judgment and discernment to keep the line well defined between her work and theirs. She cannot afford to overstep it, for experience proves to us over and over again that when a district nurse carries material relief or institutes regular investigation, her influence in that particular family is greatly hampered. It is difficult to define just where the loss is. It is a something almost intangible, but it becomes keenly apparent to the thoughtful nurse. When the family fully understands that as a nurse she has nothing to give except her professional skill and womanly sympathy, they quickly learn to accept her at her own valuation without question of further gain.

To stand in this near relation to all branches of social work without intruding upon or compromising her own high standard, must necessitate, as Mr. Glenn points out, some knowledge of the work as a whole.

Up to this time there has been no definite plan by which nurses could obtain a broad insight into philanthropic aims and methods. What knowledge we possess has been acquired through hard experience and in the few odd hours snatched from a crowded round of duties and it has proved very inadequate.

If district nursing is to assume the dignity of a specialty, should not a certain amount of preliminary social training be required? The suggestion is not a new one, it has been made by our leaders in nursing work at some of the recent meetings, but made in connection with the plan for a centralized training school, a plan that will take a long time to mature. In the

meantime our own individual need is pressing. It behooves us to meet this need that we may keep abreast with our fellow workers, who are putting forth every effort to meet it on their side.

It does not seem possible to add more to the curriculum of a general training school and moreover, a nurse usually has no definite idea while in training as to the particular line of work she wishes to follow.

There are however, a number of sources of instruction open to us which could be used for preliminary work. Schools of philanthropy, correspondence courses, volunteer service in charity organization societies, in settlements, all offer feasible methods of obtaining training.

A preliminary training of this sort would have the advantage of starting a nurse with at least a substantial knowledge of what social service involves and would tend to inspire a still higher appreciation of district nursing, and to encourage nurses to stay in the work for longer periods.

With this broader knowledge an established principle, district nurses will be more than ever in a position to ask of coworkers an equal degree of understanding, not of her professional methods as such, but a realization that her work has both a medical and social aspect, that she has definite methods of work and that her usefulness covers a wide field.

Co-operation is after all a matter of understanding. There is an abundance of good will and earnestness. If we can add to these essential qualities a comprehensive knowledge of each other's methods, there will grow up among us that unity of action which is the strength of all work.

STATISTICAL TABLE OF VISITING NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY Y. G. WATERS, NURSES' SETTLEMENT, 265 HENRY STREET, NEW YORK CITY.

Place.	Name of Association.	Established.	Affiliations.			Training Hours				Kinds of Cases.					Salary and Items of Interest.
			Char. Organ.	Church.	Other Agent.	No. of Nurses.	Grad.	Pupil.	A. M. to P. M.	Surgical.	Medical.	Obstetrical.	Contagious.	Tuberculosis.	
Albany, N. Y.	Alb. Guild for Care of the Sick	1897	no	no	no	5	5	....	Unlimt'd	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	$50–$75 per month. Also empl trained assistants.
Allegheny, Pa.	Farmington Aid Society	1894	"	"	"	1	1	...	9–5	"	"	"	no	"	$50 per month.
" "	Visiting Nurse Assn. of Allegheny Co. Pa.	1894	"	"	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " " and car fare.
Arlington, Mass.	Arlington Visiting Nursing Assn.	1904	yes	"	"	1	1	..	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
Augusta, Me.	Augusta City Hosp. Distrct Nurse	1903	no	"	yes	1	...	1	7–6	"	"	"	"	"	3rd year pupil nurses only.
Baltimore, Md.	Instructive Visting Nurse Assn.	1896	yes	yes	"	8	8	....	8–5	"	"	"	yes	"	$53 per month. Also have class for Caretakers.
" "	Out-Patient Obstetrical Service Johns Hopkins Hosp		no	no	no	2	...	2	Irreg'lar	no	no	"	no	no	Pupils of the Union Protesta Infirmary.
" "	Out-Patient Orthopedic Service Johns Hopkins Hosp	1904	"	"	"	1	1	...	9–5	yes	"	no	"	"	
" "	Public School Nurse	1905	"	"	Dep. H'th	1	1	...	9–4.30	"	yes	"	yes	yes	$60 per month paid by the cit
" "	T. Wilson Sanitarium District Nursing	1900	"	"	no	5	5	...	8 30–5	no	"	"	no	no	$75 " " " head nurse, $50 f assistants. Also have 5 milk di pensaries.
" "	Tuberculosis Nurse of Instructive Visit. Nurse Assn	1903	yes	yes	yes	1	1	....	9–5	"	no	"	"	yes	$25 per month and all expens
Bellows Falls, Vt.	Bellows Falls Women's Club	1904	no	no	no	1	1	....	9–6	yes	yes	yes	"	"	$60 " "
Berlin, N. H.	Berlin Instructive Dist. Nursing Fund	1903	"	yes	yes	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
Bernardsville, N. J.	Dist. Nurse of Bernardsville	1903	"	"	no	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	The nurse drives daily from 5 40 miles.
Boston, Mass.	Denison House	1904	"	no	"	1	1	...	9–5	"	"	"	no	no	$40 per month.
" "	Elizabeth Peabody Association	1896	"	"	"	1	1	...	Unlim'td	"	"	"	"	yes	$50 " " Dispense modifi milk.
" "	Instructive Dist. Nursing Assn	1886	"	"	"	15	15	....	9–5	"	"	"	yes	"	$50 first two years. $60 after th
" "	New England Deaconess Assn	1896	yes	yes	"	4	4	..	Unlimt'd	"	"	"	"	"	
" "	Out Door Dept. Childrens' Hospital	1895	no	no	"	1	1	..	8–6	"	"	no	.....	"	
" "	St. Stephen's House	1904	"	"	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	yes	no	"	

STATISTICAL TABLE OF VISITING NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES — Continued.

Place.	Name of Association.	Established.	Affiliations.			Training Hours.				Kinds of Cases.					Salary and Items of Interest.
			Char. Organ.	Church.	Other Agent.	No. of Nurses.	Grad.	Pupil.	A. M. to P. M.	Surgical.	Medical.	Obstetrical.	Contagious.	Tuberculosis.	
Bridgewater, Mass...	Bridgewater Visiting Nurse Association..	1902	no	no	yes	1	1	...	8–6	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	$60 per month. Also take a emergency calls.
Brockton, Mass.....	Brockton Visiting Nurse Association.....	1905	"	"	no	1	1	....	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 per month.
Brooklyn, Mass.....	Red Cross Instructive Dist. Nursing Assn.	1888	yes	"	"	6	6	....	9–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " "
Buffalo, N. Y.....	District Nursing Assn. of Buffalo.....	1892	no	"	"	4	4	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " "
Burlington, N. J....	Friendly Institution Dst. Nurse.....	1901	"	"	"	1	1	....	8–7	"	"	"	"	"	$20 per month and all expense
Cambridge, Mass.....	Cambridge Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1904	"	"	"	4	4	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50 and $40.
Canton, Mass.....	Canton Nursing Assn.....	1900	"	"	"	1	1	....	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	$60 per month and one month vacation with pay.
Charleston, S. C.....	Ladies' Benevolent Society.....	1813	....	Sev'l	"	1	1	....	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 per month. Incorporated 181 A trained nurse since 1902.
Charlotte, N. C.....	St. Peter's Hosp. Dist. Nurse.....	1905	"	no	"	1	..	1	8.30–5.30	"	"	"	no	"	Each pupil on duty in districts month.
Chicago, Ill.....	Chicago Lying-in Hosp. and Disp.....	1894	"	"	"	9	....	9	Irreg'lar	no	no	"	no	no	
" "	Visiting Nurse Assn. of Chicago.....	1890	"	"	"	20	20		8.30–5.30	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	$60 and $70.
Cincinnati, O.....	Cincinnati Visiting Nurses.....	.....	"	yes	Hos.	5	5	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$25 and expenses.
" "	Maternity Soc. of Protest. Epis. Church..	.....	"	"	no	1	1	....	"	no	no	"	no	no	$65 per month.
Cleveland, O.....	Deaconess Home Nursing Dept.....	1895	"	"	"	2	2	....	"	yes	yes	"	"	yes	Deaconess allowance and all e penses.
" "	Cleveland Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1902	"	no	"	9	9	...	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50 first 3 months, $60 after.
Columbus, O.....	Instructive District Nursing Assn.....	1898	yes	"	"	3	3	...	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50–$70.
Concord, N. H.....	Concord District Nursing Assn.....	1899	no	"	"	3	1	2	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	Head nurse $50 and expense Assn. pays training school $17. for pupils.
Danbury, N. H.....	Church Settlement	1902	yes	yes	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	
Dayton, O.....	Hygienic Dept. National Cash Register...	1901	no	no	"	2	2	....	8–5	"	"	no	no	no	$20 per week.
"	Fruit and Flower Mission.....	1901	yes	"	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	yes	"	yes	$50 per month.
Denver, Colo.....	Visiting Nurse Assn. of Denver.....	1900	"	"	"	3	3	....	8.30–5.30	"	"	"	"	"	$55 " "
Derby, Ansonia and Shelton, Conn....	Visiting Nurse Assn. of Derby, etc.....	1904	no	no	yes	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	$60 " " The Assn. has a emergency room in Ansonia.

STATISTICAL TABLE OF VISITING NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES — Continued.

Place.	Name of Association.	Established.	Affiliations.			Training Hours.				Kinds of Cases.					Salary and Items of Interest.
			Char. Organ.	Church.	Other Agent.	No. of Nurses.	Grad.	Pupil.	A. M. to P. M.	Surgical.	Medical.	Obstetrical.	Contagious.	Tuberculosis.	
Des Moines, Iowa...	Iowa Methodist Hospital Assn.....	1904	no	no	no	2	....	2	9–5	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	Pupil nurses only.
Detroit, Mich.....	Visiting Nurse Assn. of Detroit.....	1898	yes	yes	yes	4	4	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$43.50 first year per month, $48. per month second year.
Eastport, Me.....	Eastport Dist. Nursing Assn.....	1904	"	no	no	1	1	.	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$55 per month and expenses.
Elmira, N. Y.....	Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1901	no	"	"	1	1	...	5–9	"	"	"	yes	"	$50 per month.
Evansville, Ind.....	Visiting Nurse Assn. of King's Daughters	1903	yes	yes	"	1	1	...	9–5	"	"	"	no	"	$50 " "
Fall River, Mass.....	Visiting Nurse Assn. of Union Hospital.	1895	no	no	"	1	....	1	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	yes	"	Each pupil has six weeks distri work.
Flint, Mich.....	Visiting Nurse Assn. of King's Daughters	1904	"	"	"	1	1	...	9–5	"	"	"	no	"	$55 per month.
Franklin, N. H.....	Ladies' Hosp. Aid Assn.....	1900	yes	"	"	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " "
Ft. Wayne, Ind.....	Visiting Nurse League.....	1900	"	"	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$45 " "
Grand Rapids, Mich.	District Nursing Assn.....	1893	"	"	"	2	2	..	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " "
Groton, Mass.....	Groton Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1897	no	"	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " "
Harrisburg, Pa.....	Visiting Nurse Society.....	1899		"	"	2	2	....	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50 and $60 per month. They ha a Childrens' Fresh Air San tarium.
Hartford, Conn.....	Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1901	"	"	"	2	2	..	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 and $75 per month.
Hindman, Ky.....	Log Cabin Social Settlement.....	1902	"	"	W.C. T.U.	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	yes	"	$40 per month.
Irvington, N. Y.....	Presbyt. Church Dist. Nurse.....	1903	"	yes	no	1	1	....	"	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
Kalamazoo, Mich....	Civic Improvement League.....	1904	"	no	"	1	1	....	8–6	"	"	"	no	"	$60-$72 per month.
Kansas City, Mo....	Visiting Nurse Assn. of Kansas City.....	1891	"	yes	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60 per month.
Keene, N. H.....	Elliott City Hosp. Dist. Nurse.....	.....	"	no	"	1	....	1	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	Pupil nurses only.
Ledger, N. C.....	Mountain Dist. Nurse.....	1902	"	"	"	1	1	....	"	"	"	"	yes	"	Salary is whatever the people ca pay.
Lexington, Mass.....	Lexington Fellowship of Charities.....	1901	yes	"	"	1	1	...	"	"	"	"	no	"	$65 per month.
Los Angeles, Cal....	Los Angeles School Nurse.....	1904	no	no	City	1	1	....	9–5	.....	.....	....	.....	. . .	$75 " "
" "	Los Angeles Settlement Assn.....	1898	"	"	no	1	1	..	8–5	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	$75 " "
Lynn, Mass.....	Lynn Hosp. Dist. Nurse.....	.....	"	"	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	
Malden, Mass.....	Malden Industrial Aid Soc.....	1899	yes	"	"	1	1	....	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	$60 " "

STATISTICAL TABLE OF VISITING NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES — Continued.

Place.	Name of Association.	Established.	Affiliations.			Training Hours.				Kinds of Cases.					Salary and Items of Interest.
			Char. Organ.	Church.	Other Agent.	No. of Nurses.	Grad.	Pupil.	A. M. to P. M.	Surgical.	Medical.	Obstetrical.	Contagious.	Tuberculosis.	
Manchester, N. H...	Manchester Dist. Nursing Assn.....	1898	no	no	City Miss.	5	5	...	8–6	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	$50 per month.
Marblehead, Mass....	Marblehead Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1896	yes	"	no	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	$50 " "
Medford, Mass.....	Medford Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1900	no	"	"	1	1	....	8–6	"	"	no	no	"	$60 " "
Melrose, Mass.....	Melrose Hosp. Visiting Nurse.....	.....	"	"	"	1	....	1	Irreg'lar	"	"	yes	"	"	
Middleton, Conn.....	Middleton Dist. Nurse Assn.....	1901	yes	"	"	2	2	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50 and $60 per month.
Milburn, N. J.....	Neighborhood Assn. of Milburn.....	1904	no	"	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$60 per month.
Milton, Mass.....	Milton Dist. Nurse.....	1903	"	"	"	1	1	....	"	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
Minneapolis, Minn...	Inst. Visit. Nurse Comm. of Associated Charities	1903	yes	"	"	3	3	....	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 and $50 per month.
Milwaukee, Wis.....	Associated Charities Visit. Nurses.....	.....	"	"	"	2	2	....	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	$40 and $32 per month.
Moline, Ill.....	King's Daughters Union.....	1903	no	"	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$55 and $60 per month.
Montclair, N. J.....	Montclair Colony of New England Women	1905	"	"	"	1	1	...	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	no	"	$60 per month.
Nashua, N. H.....	Good Cheer Society.....	1902	yes	"	"	1	1	....	8–7	"	"	"	"	"	$70 " "
Natick, Mass.....	Natick Visit. Nurse Assn.....	1899	no	"	"	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
New Bedford, Mass.	Instructive Visit. Nursing Assn.....	1891	"	"	"	2	2	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
Newburgh, N. Y.....	Associated Charities Visit. Nurse Soc.....	1898	"	yes	"	1	1	....	7–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " "
New Haven, Conn..	Visiting Nurse Assn.....	1905	"	no	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	yes	"	$50 " "
Newport, R. I.....	Newport Hosp. Dist. Nurse.....	1904	yes	yes	yes	2	....	2	5–5.30	"	"	"	no	"	One pupil nurse especially for o stetrics.
Newton, Mass.....	Newton Dist. Nursing Assn.....	1898	no	no	no	2	2	...	8–6	"	"	"	yes	"	$60 per month.
Newton Center, Mass.	Newton Center Dist. Nursing Assn.....	1899	yes	"	"	3	3	....	8–5	"	"	"	no	"	$60 " "
Newark, N. J.....	Newark Visit. Nursing Assn.....	1902	no	"	"	2	2	....	9–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
New York, N. Y....	Bellevue Hosp. Tuberculosis Clinic.....	1904	"	"	"	5	3	2	9–5	no	no	no	no	"	$60 " " for graduates.
" "	Bloomingdale Dist. Nurse.....	1905	yes	yes	no	1	...	....	9–5	yes	yes	yes	"	"	$75 " "
" "	Charity Organization Soc.....	.....	"	no	"	4	4	....	9–5	"	"	"	yes	"	$50–$60 per month.
" "	Private Individual	.....	"	"	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	
" "	Womans' Branch N. Y. City Mission Soc.	1877	no	no	no	10	10	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50 per month.
" "	New York Colored Mission.....	.....	"	yes	"	1	1	...	8–12 noon	"	"	"	"	"	$25 " "
" "	Church of Incarnation.....	1894	"	"	"	1	1	....	.....	"	"	"	no	"	
" "	Dept. of Health School Nurses.....	1902	"	"	"	44	44	....	9–5	"	no	no	yes	no	$75 " "

STATISTICAL TABLE OF VISITING NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES — Continued.

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			Char. Organ.	Church.	Other Agent.	No. of Nurses.	Grad.	Pupil.	A. M. to P. M.	Surgical.	Medical.	Obstetrical.	Contagious.	Tuberculosis.	
New York, N. Y.	Dept. of Health Tuberculosis Nurses	1903	no	no	no	12	12	....	9–4	no	no	no	no	yes	$75 " "
" "	Dist. Nurses of Ethical Society	1877	"	"	"	3	3	...	9–5	yes	yes	"	yes	"	$66 " "
" "	St. Luke's Assn. of Grace Parish	1887	"	yes	"	1	1	...	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$400 a year with board.
" "	Henry St. Settlement	1903	"	1 Ch.	Disp.	24	23	1	9–6	"	"	Abn'l only	no	"	$60 per month. Home for convalescents, and milk stations clubs and classes.
" "	New York Infirmary	1902	"	no	no	1	...	1	Irreg'lar	"	"	yes	"	yes	
" "	Lying-in Hosp. Society	1895	"	"	"	10	....	10	7–7	no	no	"	"	no	
" "	Ministering Guild	1899	"	"	"	1	1	...	8–5	yes	yes	"	"	yes	
" "	Mt. Sinai Hosp. Dist. Nurse	1890	"	"	"	1	...	1	10–3	"	"	no	"	no	
" "	Northern Dispensary Dist. Nurse	1894	"	"	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	"	yes	yes	
" "	Visiting Nurse Dept. of Presbyterian Hosp.	1904	"	"	"	6	2	4	8.30–5	"	"	"	no	"	$75 per month for the graduates
" "	Sunny Side Day Nursery	.....	"	"	"	1	1	....	.....	"	"	"	yes	"	
" "	St. George's Dist. Nurse	1884	"	yes	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$400 and expenses.
" "	University Place Church	1901	"	"	"	1	1	....	"	"	"	"	no	"	$60 per month.
" "	Vanderbilt Clinic	1902	"	no	"	1	1	...	9–5	no	no	"	"	"	
" "	Beneficial Assn. of Employees of Wanamaker's Store	1897	"	"	"	1	1	....	8.30–5.30	yes	yes	"	"	"	
Norfolk, Va.	City Union of King's Daughters	1896	"	"	"	2	....	....	9–6	"	"	yes	"	"	$70 and $40.
North Eastern Mass.	North Eastern Dist. Nurse	1896	"	"	"	1	1	..	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$60 and $70.
Oakland, Cal.	Fabriola Hosp. Dist. Nurse	.....	....	....	.....	1	....	1	"	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	
Oakmont, Pa.	Dist. Nursing Assn. of Oakmont	1901	"	"	"	1	1	...	"	"	"	"	"	"	$60.
Omaha, Neb.	Omaha Dist. Nursing Assn	1896	"	"	"	2	2	...	8–5	"	"	"	yes	"	$50.
Orange, N. J.	Visiting Nurses Settlement	1900	"	"	"	5	3	2	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	no	"	$30 and $25, board and laundry for the graduates.
Peoria, Ill.	Associated Charities	1902	"	All	"	1	1	....	8–5.30	"	"	"	"	"	$60.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Dominican House and Catholic Guild	1903	"	no	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$25.
" "	Methodist Womans' Home Mission	.....	"	yes	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	no	Deaconess allowance.
" "	St. Martha's Church Settlement	1901	"	"	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	yes	$25 and all expenses.
" "	Visiting Nurse Society	1886	"	no	"	18	18	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50–$55.

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			Char. Organ.	Church.	Other Agents.	No. of Nurses.	Graduated.	Pupil.	A. M. to P. M.	Surgical.	Medical.	Obstetrical.	Contagious.	Tuberculosis.	
Pittsburg, Pa.	Columbian Council School Settlement	1902	no	no	no	1	1	..	8–5	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	$60 and car fare.
" "	East End Visit. Nurses' Aid Society	1895	yes	"	"	1	1	...	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$55.
" "	First Presbyterian Church	1904	no	yes	"	1	1		8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$50.
Pittsfield, Mass.	Post Graduate Nurses' Assn	1901	"	no	"	1	1	..	.....	"	"	"	"	"	The nurses take turns in doing district work.
Plainfield, N. J.	City Union of King's Daughters	1895	yes	"	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$15 per week. They have a Baby Camp in the mountains.
Portland, Me.	Portland Dist. Nurse Assn	1904	no	"	"	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50 per month.
Portland, Ore.	" "	1902	no	All	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60 per month, laundry and car fare.
Proctor, Vt.	Proctor Hospital Dist. Nurse	.....	"	no	"	1	....	1	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	
Princeton, N. J.	Visiting Nurses of Village Imp'm't. Soc.	1901	"	"	"	1	1	....	"	"	"	"	"	"	Small home with 2 beds for emergency work.
Providence, R. I.	Providence Dist. Nursing Assn	1899	"	"	"	5	3	2	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60 for graduates.
Pueblo, Colo.	Pueblo Hosp. Dist. Nurse	.....	"	"	"	1	...	1	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	
Quincy, Mass	Quincy Dist. Nurse	1905	.....	.....	.....	1	1	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Rhinebeck, N. Y.	Thompson Home Dist. Nurse	1902	"	"	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	$30.
Richmond, Va.	Instructive Visit. Nurse Assn	1902	yes	yes	yes	3	3	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$37.50 and car fare.
Rochester, N. Y.	Rochester Public Health Assn	1904	"	no	no	1	1	....	9–5	no	no	no	no	yes	$50 per month.
Saginaw, Mich.	Saginaw General Hosp. Visit. Nurse	1905	no	"	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$30 per month, room, board and laundry.
St. Louis, Mo.	Method. Epis. Deaconess	1902	yes	yes	"	1	1	....	Irreg'lar	yes	yes	yes	"	no	Deaconess allowance.
" "	Provident Assn. Visit. Nurse	1895	"	no	"	3	2	..	8.30–5.30	"	"	"	yes	yes	$50–$40 $30.
St. Paul, Minn.	Associated Charities Visit. Nurse	1902	"	"	"	1	1	...	8.30–6	"	"	"	no	"	$50 per month.
Salem, Mass.	Womans' Friend Society	1896	no	"	"	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$50 " "
San Francisco, Cal.	Associated Charities	1899	yes	"	"	2	2	....	8.30–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
" "	Cathedral Mission of the Good Samaritan	1899	no	yes	"	2	2	...	9–5	"	"	"	yes	"	
" "	Hale Bros. Dept. Store	1902	"	no	"	1	1	...	9–6	"	"	no	no	no	$75 " "
" "	Tehama St. Settlement	1898	"	"	"	4	4	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	yes	$60 " "
" "	Telegraph Hill Neighborhood Assn	1903	"	"	"	3	3	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "
Saranac Lake, N. Y.	Saranac Lake Dist. Nurse Assn	1900	"	"	"	1	1	...	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60 " "

STATISTICAL TABLE OF VISITING NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES — Concluded.

Place.	Name of Association.	Established.	Affiliations.			Training Hours.				Kinds of Cases.					Salary and Items of Interest
			Char. Organ.	Church.	Other Agents.	No. of Nurses.	Graduated.	Pupil.	A. M. to P. M.	Surgical.	Medical.	Obstetrical.	Contagious.	Tuberculosis.	
Scranton, Pa.	Scranton Visiting Nurse	.....	no	no	no	1	1	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
South Orange, N. J.	Soc. for Lending Comforts to the Sick	1897	"	"	"	2	2	....	9–5	yes	yes	no	no	no	$60 per month.
Springfield, Mass.	Springfield Visit. Nurse	1902	"	yes	"	1	...	....	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	yes	$43 and car fare.
Summit, N. J.	Dist. Nursing Branch of the "Fortnightly"	1905	"	no	"	1	1	...	8 30-6	"	"	"	"	"	$75.
Sewickly, Pa.	Philanthropic Dept. of Woman's Club	1899	"	"	"	1	1	..	8–8	"	"	"	"	"	$60.
Toledo, O.	Visiting Nurses' Aid Soc	1902	yes	"	"	2	2	....	8–5.30	"	"	"	"	"	$50. Nurses are allowed $5 a month for emergency.
Utica, N. Y.	Le Faxton Hosp. Visit. Nurse	1903	no	"	"	1	..	1	Irreg'lar	"	"	"	"	"	
Walpole, N. H.	Walpole Dist. Nurse	1904	"	yes	"	1	1	...	"	"	"	"	"	"	$50 per month and room rent.
Waltham, Mass.	Waltham Dist. Nurse Assn	1900	"	no	"	2	....	2	7–9	"	"	"	"	"	The pupils have two hours off in the afternoon.
Ware, Mass.	Social Science Club Dist. Nurse	1903	"	"	"	1	1	..	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$58.75 per month.
Washington, D. C.	Instruct. Visit. Nurse Soc	1900	"	"	Diet Kit'n	8	8	.	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$25 and expenses.
" "	Sibley Memorial Hosp.	.....	"	yes	no	1	...	1	.....	"	"	"	"	"	$75. Nurses Aid Soc. Supplies, delicacies and nourishment.
Waterbury, Conn.	Visit. Nurse Assn. of Waterbury	1903	"	"	"	2	2	....	9–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60.
Watertown, Mass.	Watertown Dist. Nursing Assn	1902	"	no	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60.
Westchester Co. N. Y.	Westchester Co. Dist. Nursing Assn	1898	"	"	"	1	1	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$60.
" "	North Westchester Co. Dist. Nursing Assn.	1901	yes	"	"	2	2	....	9–5	"	"	"	"	"	$60.
Whitinsville, Mass.	King's Daughters Dist. Nursing Assn	1901	no	yes	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	"	"	"	$18 per week.
Wilmington, N .C.	Wilmington Dist. Nurse	1904	"	"	"	1	1	...	8.30–4.30	"	"	"	"	"	$50, laundry and car fare.
Winchester, Mass.	Winchester Visit. Nurse Assn	1899	"	no	"	2	2	.	9–5	"	"	"	yes	"	$60.
Woburn, Mass.	Woburn Visit. Nurse Assn	1904	yes	"	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	"	no	"	$50.
Woodstock, Vt.	Eleanor Wright Blach. Visit. Nurse	1905	"	"	"	1	1	....	7–7	"	"	"	"	"	$50 and expenses.
Worcester, Mass.	Worcester Dist. Nursing Assn	1893	no	"	"	3	3	...	8–6	"	"	"	"	"	$55.
" "	Yonkers Homeopath. Hosp. Maternity	1896	yes	"	"	1	1	....	8–7	no	no	yes	no	no	
" "	St. John's Hosp. Dist. Nursing Assn	1901	no	"	"	1	1	....	9–5	yes	yes	"	"	yes	$60.
Youngstown, O.	The Woman's Institute	1899	yes	"	"	1	1	....	8–5	"	"	no	"	yes	$70.
	Visit. Nurse Assn. of Youngstown	1904	no	"	"	1	1	....	9–5	"	"	yes	"	"	$60.

IX.

Criminals.

TREATMENT OF THE YOUNGER OFFENDERS.

BY J. A. LEONARD, CHAIRMAN.

An examination of the annual reports of the Conference of Charities and Correction shows that the subject of the treatment of criminals has been discussed very exhaustively, both from the standpoint of the philosopher and that of the practical administrator. It appears to your Committee, however, that the special methods employed in dealing with youthful criminals have not been dwelt upon so largely, and we therefore thought best to confine this report to a discussion of this phase of the larger subject.

Society has by enactment of laws and judicial decisions set a standard of conduct below which the individual cannot fall without incurring the penalty of imprisonment, and being classed as a criminal, either as a misdemeanant or as a felon. It therefore becomes the chief concern and fundamental function of society to prepare the youthful individuality to meet the requirements of this constantly rising standard of conduct, and to become a co-operating factor in all social effort, and an appreciative sharer in all social benefits. To this end, society has evolved institutions; the home, the school, the church, and government.

It so happens, however, that many fail of the wholesome formative influences of one or more of these character-building institutions. This failure may arise from unfavorable conditions over which the individual youth has little control; or, the failure may be traced largely to a subjective tendency to wrong-doing, or a perverted will. But be the responsibility where it may, the result is the same. The neglected and vicious youth is unfitted for social assimilation; he is apt to grow anti-social, prone to commit offenses, and finally becomes an irritating foreign

body in the social organism, disturbing its comfort, lowering its efficiency, and threatening its safety. Society must, then, in accordance with the first law of nature, take steps to protect itself.

But society must proceed in accordance with the altruistic spirit of the age, and the methods employed must be in accordance with the best thought of the times. For centuries the most common method employed to protect society was imprisonment in a general place of confinement, into which all the weak, wicked, or broken offenders were cast without reference to age or character of the offense committed, the only classification being as to the length of sentence. This treatment of the prisoner was based on the belief that once a criminal, always a criminal. These great prisons necessarily became schools of vice from which men and women with less conscience, but with more of skill and cunning, went forth to prey upon society.

But with the growth of the altruistic spirit better methods of dealing with the criminal were suggested. When Victor Hugo with inspired genius created that greatest of human dramas, "Les Miserables," and made Javert the embodiment of retributive law, and the good Bishop the incarnation of Christian philanthropy, as the chief factors in the hero's career, he made possible and necessary the modern, reformatory treatment of the youthful criminal. This great work enlightened the understanding and aroused the conscience of the people of every Christian land. It is at once a classical text-book and a source of inspiration for those who would labor to reclaim the criminal.

All reformatory methods of dealing with the young criminal spring from a clearer perception of the relations existing between society and the individual, and a better understanding of the mutual obligations arising therefrom. They are based on Christian ethics which take cognizance of both the law and the Gospel. It then becomes a matter of public conscience, not only to bring the youthful criminal to account and restrain and punish him, but to afford him every opportunity to rehabilitate himself as a man and to readjust himself as a citizen.

To attain these desirable ends there must be favorable conditions, adequate means, and proper methods. Just here it

might be proper to state that there is a growing conviction in the minds of those who have given reformatory methods most careful attention, that the probation law so successfully applied in dealing with juvenile offenders should be made to apply to young men who have been convicted for the first time of a felony. The head of one large reformatory institution gives as his opinion that fully one-third of the young men committed to his institution could be reclaimed through suspended sentence for a period of probation. To this end, judges should be given much wider discretion than they can exercise under the law in most states of the Union. It is true that the suspended sentence plan has been followed in some states, but not with sufficient care as to the supervision of men on probation.

Youthful first offenders from the age of, say sixteen, found guilty of penal acts, but who, in the judgment of the courts, are not of criminal bent, and whose arrest and conviction has brought them to a realizing sense of their danger and contrition for their fault, and whose home influences and general conditions are such as to make for their reformation, should not be confined, but entered upon the reformatory rolls under suspended sentence on, at least, a year's probation. The reformatory officers should exercise a friendly surveillance and sympathetic guardianship, and for this purpose have the reformatory field officer visit those paroled and make monthly report of their conduct and progress. Any of them found repeating criminal conduct should be promptly committed to the institution, while those serving their probation in good faith should be discharged from the legal custody of the reformatory without prejudice.

To introduce this feature of the ideal reformatory, it will be necessary to obtain additional legislation, but experience and observation, strengthened by the opinion of those long engaged in the work, leads to the belief that this probationary feature should be added to the reformatory system without delay. If in addition to a wise administration of such probationary law, as above suggested, all officers charged with the prosecution and custody of criminals were placed on fixed salary instead of the mischievous fee system now in vogue in many states, the census

would show a remarkable falling off in penal institutions for the younger offenders.

The reformatory system within the institution, should not be the round of transcendental nonsense that unwise advocates and partially informed opponents of the system have represented it to be. On the contrary it consists, or should consist, of the most practical and common-sense methods. It should be characterized by thorough, firm discipline. This discipline should not be of a character to destroy, distort, or demean the personality of the young criminal. It should be rather a strong pressure that restrains, supports, and sustains him until by a process of substitution, self-respect, self-control, good motives and established habits do their perfect work.

Reformatory administration, while avoiding the waste of speculation as to "defectives." "innate criminals," "degenerates," etc., aims through the scientific study of heredity, environment, physical and psychical peculiarities of each individual, and by prudent experimentation, to arrive at a degree of scientific precision in classification and method. The young criminal may be awakened to a new intellectual day by the educational processes of the reformatory school. He may be quickened to a new spiritual life by the inspiration of moral or religious truth; but he stands secure only when his feet rest upon the rock of economic independence. "Labor stands on golden feet," is a proverb, the truth of which can be realized by the reformatory inmate only after industrial training has given creative vision to his eye and constructive skill to his hands. To this end, the state laws should be so amended as to make it possible to employ young criminals in productive industries. It is not possible to train such large numbers of young men as are found in reformatory institutions in mere non-productive practice work in manual training and trade school classes. Output in quantity and quality are the most wholesome incentive.

A wholesome moral atmosphere is fundamental to successful work in reformatory institutions. It should not be tainted by anything questionable in business methods, official appointments, or the character or conduct of any person connected with the institution. It should be so vital with manly vigor as to quicken

into life the latent manliness that sleeps in the soul of even the worst criminal. It should be so genial and warm with honest human sympathy as to be a balm for the hurt mind and a gentle stimulant to the dormant sensibilities of those who are at all responsive.

Those called upon to deal with the never-ending procession of young people sentenced to pass through the penal institutions sometimes grow discouraged with reformatory efforts, only measurably successful, and ever to be repeated on new subjects. At such times they feel the pressing need of more effective preventive work, so that this stream of crime may be dried up at its sources. They feel that in fact it is a two-fold problem that presses for solution. How shall we best prevent the criminal class from recruiting its numbers, and how best win away those already enlisted in its ranks?

True to the spirit of the times, we have looked to science for the discovery of some great law; the breaking of a great light; or, at least, the revelation of some great truth that would render our task comparatively easy. To this end, all who come in the name of science or revelation are given a full hearing. The disciplinarian, statistician, anthropologist, reformer, educator, and finally, the sociologist, have each in turn made their contribution of more or less value; but the problem still remains unsolved.

In seeking a solution of this problem at the hands of the special sciences loosely grouped under the name of criminology, we fear that we have been running after strange gods. It comes home to us that we have spent too much energy in combating simple negations and attempting to eradicate abstract evils. We are coming to believe in the proposition that the best method to reduce crime is to increase the number of good citizens — that the best way to expel darkness is to introduce light. We have come to believe, too, that the making of a good citizen is not a scientific process, but a divine art.

A great English philosopher relates that on his journey around the world for the purpose of scientific research, he encountered on the seashore of a southern island a magnificent specimen of physical manhood who was engaged in gathering up the fragments of a jellyfish strewn along the beach. The picture

here presented appeals powerfully to the imagination and suggests the most striking contrast in the animate world. The shapeless jelly fish on the wet sand and the admirable figure of the islander standing in symmetric beauty in the sunlight may well be taken to represent the beginning and the end of that creative process which the philosopher taught us to designate the "evolution of species."

The naked savage stands the most highly and delicately organized creature possible in the ascending scale of life. The distance between the jellyfish and its captor, gauged by the difference in complexity of organism and variety of function, seems immeasurable; but the difference is no wider than the gulf that separates the savage from the sage who stands by his side. If there be any difference in the matter of physical mechanism, including cranial capacity, the advantage would possibly have been in favor of the savage. But supposing them to be equal in excellence or organism, how can we account for the immense superiority of the sage? He attains his superiority over the savage in a way strikingly analogous to the process by which the savage attains his superiority over the jellyfish.

In man the evolution of species reaches its climax. In him the social being comes into existence and the evolution of the social organism begins. All this superiority of the English philosopher came to him through what we call social evolution, or process of civilization. The nation, or social organism, of which he was the individual representative, came to its perfection of complex functions through centuries of development, but this splendid type of the individual citizen came to his crowning excellence in one short lifetime. How? By the process we have above designated as the making of a citizen.

The character of a good citizen is the resultant of many factors, those dominating being the individual will and the public or social will, as exercised by proper authority from parental to governmental. It is evident that the public will should be exercised first, and that in determining the character and destiny of the individual, the public will must take the initiative. Nature has wisely provided for this. The child is born without will — absolutely helpless and dependent. This godlike power develops

slowly in order that it may be trained and directed in its true relation of wholesome subjection to the social will and the will of God. The poet has it right when he says:

"Three roots bear up dominion, — Knowledge, Will —
These twain are strong, but stronger yet the third,
Obedience. 'Tis the great tap root that knit around the rock of duty is not stirred,
Though heaven-loosed tempests spend their utmost skill."

Let society fail to train the individual to cheerful obedience to proper authority and it begets an egotist, fosters an anarchist, and develops a criminal. The power to conceive of and to discharge ideal social obligations is the highest test of individual worth.

But lest we forget, it may be well to keep in mind the other factor — the individual will. We would not minimize the individual by relieving him of personal responsibility for his conduct and character. However, we feel that the greatest present need in preventive work is to arouse society to a quickened sense of its responsibility as constituting moral environment, the defects of which may in a great measure be responsible for the bent of the individual, whose long pupilage has subjected him to social influences to the point of saturation.

What, then, is the pressing duty of the hour in the matter of reformatory and preventive work? The answer is: "Do all and more than we are doing in and out of reformatory institutions in the way of winning men and women, boys and girls, away from the life of crime. Do all and more than we are doing in every line of preventive work, from child-saving in the kindergartens of the slums to the colony of ex-convicts in the country." In all this we have done well, and can do better, but when we have done our best, it will be insufficient, as nothing we are now doing provides for the drying up of the stream of crime at its sources.

We cannot look to government for much direct aid in the prevention of crime. In dealing with this problem, it is the function of the government to establish and enforce the standard below which the conduct of the individual may not fall without incurring a penalty.

Government takes note of crime rather than sin. It is cognizant of the overt act, not of the sinful disposition or wicked tendency. But we may look to government for powerful indirect influence in preventing crime. Since material welfare is the soil most favorable to the growth of the civic virtues, government can well afford to exert its corrective power in securing better economic conditions for all its people.

Were pinching poverty and sensual luxury materially reduced, if not eliminated, from our great cities, the solution of the problem of crime would be well advanced. Bad government the world over has been productive of crime, and we can, therefore, rightly look to good government to reduce crime by bringing to pass more favorable political and economic conditions and by exercising a protecting and fostering care over our social institutions; the home, the school, the church,— the character-building agencies upon whose efficiency to discharge their duty to society depends the integrity and worth of the individual character. And it is to these we are to look for the solution of the problem of crime. The inmates of our reformatories come from the homes of the land, and few of them are found to be entire strangers to the school, the Sunday School, or the church.

The field officer of a certain reformatory, who goes about the state visiting the young men paroled from that institution, and who has an opportunity second to no man connected with reformatory work for a thorough study of the problem of caring for discharged prisoners, when asked to what he attributed the downfall of so many young men of the commonwealth, replied, "defective homes." Said he: "I am not afraid to place a paroled boy in a bad community if he goes to a good home." When asked what he meant by "defective homes," he replied: "A home that has been broken by death, separation or divorce; a home in which one, or both, parents are positively immoral and careless; a home in which no parental control exists."

In order to test these statements, an investigation was made and it was found from the records of that institution that three-fifths of the inmates came from what the field officer called "broken homes." While it is doubtless true that no country in the world has so many good homes as America, the fact still

remains that too many of our homes are below the standard of efficiency.

The child, the individual unit, is born into the family, the divinely instituted social unit. Here the child, "heir of all the ages," enters with inherited aptitude upon a period of social gestation, from which he should be born a good citizen, possessed of the culture and spirit of the parent society.

Admitting that there are those individuals who in spite of good inheritance and proper environment, because of persistency of a perverted will or inherent tendency, become criminal, we still believe that the dominant factor in the making of a good citizen is the home.

We believe that the individual soul is the entity to which all righteous human effort tends — the universe flowers in personal excellence. We believe, as a rule, that this excellence of personal character will be in proportion to the efficiency of the home; that the integrity of the individual is most largely determined by the sanctity of the family.

Believing this, let us enrich the family life. Let the American home be the salubrious safe harbor where the world's best freight of things and thought shall come to shore.

NEEDED REFORMS IN CRIMINAL PROCEDURE.

HON. OSCAR HALLAM, ST. PAUL.

The busiest function of government, is the restraint of lawlessness. Unfortunately, in all stages of civilization, one part of the community has persistently made depredations upon the other part. This, sometimes, arises from a pure sense of lawlessness, more often, from motives of personal gain. The desire to get something for nothing, is an inseparable part of human nature. All men possess it more or less, but it manifests itself in a variety of ways, sometimes, within the law, and sometimes, without the law. To effectually prevent crime we must

have punishment, and that punishment must be just, prompt and sure. To administer punishment, we must have legal penalties, and rules and forms of procedure. Our judicial system has been a growth. It is founded upon the common law, that is, that unwritten system of rules of conduct and procedure that grew up in response to the dictates of reason and the demands of justice. But the common law became, in time, arbitrary and rigid, and to meet the necessity, ever recurring, for more flexibility, there arose what is known as equity jurisprudence, which, under a new name, was simply a modified form of the original scheme of growth and development. But equity jurisprudence had no application to criminal law, and the result was, that the growth and development of criminal law and procedure did not keep pace with the growth and development of civil law and procedure. In modern times, constitutions and statutes have modified the old rules, both of law and of equity, and both civil and criminal, but the fact still remains, that in criminal much more than in civil law and procedure we have adhered to old rules and traditions, after the occasion for them has passed, and after their days of usefulness have passed. Of recent years there has undoubtedly been an increase in some forms of crime; and there is a prevailing and a growing belief, that a measure, at least, of the blame for the prevalence of crime is due to the law's uncertainty and the law's delay. This opinion is not altogether wrong. It is true that our penal codes have carried down some features, that are not in harmony with the spirit or the needs of the times.

It is an awful thing to punish an innocent man for crime, and there should be no relaxation of the rules of law and procedure, necessary to enable the innocent to assert and prove their innocence. But neither should the guilty be permitted to pervert rules which were designed for the protection of innocence, into a means for the protection of guilt. To this end, there is need of some wholesome changes in prevailing methods of procedure in criminal cases. I desire to indicate some of the rules and practices which, in my judgment, have been abused, and which, in my judgment, should be modified.

Perhaps the most fruitful source of criticism has come from the importance given by the law, to technical forms of procedure.

No doubt the average layman, if asked what in his judgment, was the greatest defect in our criminal procedure, would say, that it is the fact that we give too much attention to form, and too little attention to substance, and in my judgment this is correct. It seems a plain proposition that, in indictments, in pleadings, and in proceedings upon the trial, all errors or irregularities, not affecting the substantial rights of the accused, should be disregarded. But unfortunately, under present constitutions and laws such a course is not always open to the courts. Let me illustrate by a few noted cases, cases that have attracted public attention, because of the circumstances and the interests involved.

In two cases in one of our states, arising out of prosecution, in connection with a general scheme of municipal corruption, verdicts of guilty were set aside on appeal, because of the fact that the complaint, the initial step in the criminal proceeding, was not signed by the proper party, a technical defect which could, in no possible measure, affect the substantial rights of the accused.

In another notorious case in the same state, the defendant was convicted of the crime of bribery of a member of a city board, in connection with the letting of a contract, which that board was specially authorized by an ordinance to make. The verdict was set aside on appeal on this ground: it was held that to constitute legal bribery, the board, at the time of the commission of the act, must have had authority to make the contract. In order to have authority to make the contract, the ordinance must have been passed by the council and approved by the mayor; at the time that the bribery was proved the ordinance passed the council, but it was not approved by the mayor until the next day. If the jury was right in its findings of fact, there was in that case a mis-carriage of justice.

In another case a mayor was indicted and convicted of the crime of receiving bribes from divers persons, in consideration of his granting them immunity from arrest. The verdict was set aside on appeal, on the ground that the proof failed to show that there was any concerted action between the persons who made the contributions, and that consequently the proof showed a number of offences instead of one. But the Court said, if concerted action between the parties who contributed money had been

proven, this would have been conspiracy, and a single offence, and the verdict could not have been sustained.

Now, I am not criticizing the courts that made these decisions. Lawyers would probably agree that they were in accordance with the prevailing rules of law, and that they were a correct construction of statutes and constitutions upon which they were based; but I say the result was wrong, and that constitutions and laws which require such decisions, should be changed. The purpose should be, in all criminal prosecutions, to protect the substantial rights of the accused, whether he be guilty or innocent, to give the innocent every opportunity to prove his innocence, and to give the guilty every right which, in good conscience, he should be allowed, but not to protect the guilty from the just retribution which should follow his crime.

The right of appeal has been much abused. Appeals in criminal cases upon technical grounds, and reversals upon technical errors, often tend to pervert justice rather than to assure it. There is, probably, nothing so discouraging to the honest prosecutor, as a reversal of a verdict upon some ground which does not really go to the merits of the case. It is a well known fact, that a second trial in a criminal case is beset with more difficulties than the first. Witnesses, in many cases questionable characters, often disappear; their recollections, even though they be honest, become indistinct and uncertain; public interest has flagged, and, even in murder cases, the centre of interest shifts, and, too often, sympathy is transferred from the victim to the accused. Some distinguished students of this subject have advocated a total abolition of the right of appeal in criminal cases. I do not concur with those who would abolish the right of appeal. Such a measure would be extreme, would be unnecessary, and would be fraught with danger. But the right of reversal in criminal cases should be more limited. There should be no presumption of injury from the mere fact of error in some technical rule of law or procedure. The duty and the power of appellate courts to reverse, should be limited to cases where it is at least probable that substantial justice has not been done.

There is another well-known principle of criminal law to which I desire to call attention. That is the rule that no man

should be required to give testimony against himself. Whether any part of that rule should be retained, is at least questionable. The rules of practice as to testimony of parties have been the occasion of a great many freaks of the law. Until comparatively recent times, a man was not permitted to testify in his own case, either civil or criminal; now, in civil cases that rule has been entirely abrogated, and a party may not only be permitted to testify in his own behalf, but he may be required to testify at the instance of the other party. In criminal cases, a man may testify in his own behalf, but he cannot be compelled to testify at the instance of the state. I cannot see the logic or the reason for such a rule. It is not conceivable that an innocent man should, by his own testimony, convict himself, but it is a well-known fact, that guilty men have been allowed to escape, because of some fact or circumstance which can be proved by no one other than the man who committed the crime.

But, however this may be, it is clear to my mind that the immunity has been carried to an unwarranted extent. In two recent cases of note, arising in two different states, a verdict of guilty was set aside by the appellate court, because the grand jury which returned the indictment had called the accused as a witness in its investigation of a general scheme of municipal corruption. In neither case did it appear that the accused gave testimony in any measure implicating himself, but it was held that the constitutional guaranty protects a person from being compelled to give evidence of any circumstance or link in the chain of evidence which may tend to convict him of a crime; that it protects him from being compelled to disclose the circumstances of his offense, the sources from which, or the means by which, evidence of its commission, or his connection with it may be obtained, or made effectual for his conviction, without using his answers as direct admissions against him.

Now these courts were simply interpreting and enforcing the constitution and laws of their respective states as they found them. The fault was not with the courts, but with constitutions and laws. The rule is wrong, and, in many cases, renders difficult any effective enforcement of the law. There is no sound reason for such a rule of law. Its abrogation would work injustice to

no one. Immunity, granted to such an extent, is not required to protect the innocent, but is calculated to shield the guilty. Society wrongs no man by requiring him to tell the truth before a grand jury, even though the truth may connect him with a crime, and disclose sources of information which may result in his conviction.

I have endeavored to indicate some changes that seem to me desirable in the generally prevailing rules of criminal procedure. The fact is, our criminal procedure should be overhauled, to bring it in harmony with the conditions and the needs of the present time.

There are some things which we should not do. In my judgment no proposed reform should infringe upon the right of trial by jury, and I say this not because of any sacredness adhering to the traditions of that system, but because it is the best system, yet devised, for the trial of issues of fact, and the best guarantee against possible oppression and wrong. Wholesome changes may from time to time suggest themselves as to methods of selecting jurors, and as to other details of the system, but the principle of trial by jury should be preserved inviolate. It has been held by courts of the highest authority, that it is within the province of the court to restrain the commission of acts which are in themselves not only an invasion of some civil right, but also a crime, and to punish disobedience as contempt of court. In experience, such practice has rarely been effective or satisfactory, and in so far as the purpose or the effect of such practice is to supplant trial by jury, it should be very sparingly applied. The primary purpose of injunction is to restrain, and not to introduce a means of eliminating trial by jury.

There has been some disposition, in recent years, to curtail the operation of the grand jury system. It is said that that system is cumbersome and expensive; but cumbersome and expensive, though it may sometimes be, the grand jury system fulfills a duty well, and no adequate substitute has yet been devised. As a means of uprooting underground methods of corruption and crime it is the most effective instrument yet known.

It is true that the jury system is subject to some just crit-

icism. Jurors do not always rise to the highest sense of patriotic duty. But they usually reflect the common sentiment of the people. Juries are selected from the mass of the people, and their sense of duty, as a rule, will not be much higher or lower than their environment. The best means of correcting the evils of the jury system, is to cultivate among the people a higher sense of patriotic duty.

So much for reforms of criminal procedure.

Do we need more penal laws? There are ample penalties for such offenses as murder, arson, larceny and the like, but instances have arisen where our penal statutes have proved inadequate. We live in a most extraordinary age. The progress of this nation, in the century and a quarter of its existence, has been unparalleled in the history of the world. At the beginning of that period, we were a nation of three millions, skirting the Atlantic coast; now we are a nation of eighty millions, spanning the continent and reaching out into the isles of the sea; then, we were an agricultural community; now our factories and workshops are sending their wares around the world; then, we were dependent upon foreign importations, for the necessaries of life; now we are the greatest exporting country of the world. The utilization of steam and electricity have revolutionized trade, commerce and transportation. Our first presidents rode horse-back to their inauguration; now the humble citizen may ride in palatial cars, propelled at the rate of more than a mile a minute. When the Oregon question was first discussed in Congress, one member opposed the accession of this country. It could never be made into states, he said, it was so far from the national capital that a member of Congress, after the news of election was received, could not reach Washington in time for the inauguration. Now the trip across the continent is made in four days. Our fathers dispatched the news of great events by couriers, and the great battle of New Orleans was fought days after peace had been declared, and before the contending armies had learned the news; now the trifling happenings of every day are flashed by wire, across the continent, over mountains, under the seas and around the world quicker than one can think. The progress of the nation in commerce, in wealth, and in all that goes to make up material prosperity, has been so

great, that, when expressed in figures, the mind can scarcely grasp their significance.

All this great progress has brought with it corresponding problems. They are the problems, not of war, but of peace, and it has been difficult, for those who make the law of the land, to keep pace with the changing conditions. It is an age of great accumulation of wealth, of great combinations and consolidations, of great cities and great municipal undertakings. Great commercial power has centered in the hands of few men, and that great power has, sometimes, been abused. To prevent such abuses, there is recurring need for more stringent penal regulations.

It is not my purpose to discuss the question of trusts and combinations, or of wealth and poverty, save as they may have some bearing upon the subject in hand; but there are some things to which I desire to call attention.

We cannot but view with alarm the monopolization of the necessaries of life, with its resultant exorbitant prices, fixed at the pleasure of those who exercise control. We should have more stringent penal regulation to the end that such results shall be impossible.

We should call a halt upon our captains of finance who have fostered a spirit of speculation and then taken advantage of the opportunities that they have created, to feed the public wih securities which have been swollen by questionable methods to fictitious values. We cannot by law prevent speculation. We perhaps cannot prevent particular people from fostering it. But we can, by legislative enactment, prevent imposition and fraud.

We should more carefully and more stringently guard the people's money, wherever it is held in trust. We have reasonably good safeguards for the protection of moneys deposited in banks, but there is a class of institutions which, if the progress of the past few years shall continue in the future, will soon rival the banks of the country, as depositories of the people's money. There are some 40 insurance corporations in the country, which have aggregate assets of nearly $2,000,000,000 and an aggregate income of more than $500,000,000. These assets, for the most part, represent moneys paid by policy-holders as premiums, and this income is derived, either directly or indirectly, from the same

source. It is a significant fact, that three of these corporations have over half of these assets, and nearly half of this income.

A short time ago a block of stock of one of these corporations amounting, at par, to $52,000, was sold at a price, which rumor places all the way from $2,500,000 to $5,000,000. Perhaps both these figures are too high. If the latter figure should be correct, it is nearly 100 times the par value. That capital stock pays a dividend of seven per cent. per annum. Certainly the price exacted was not on account of the dividend, nor because of the desire of the owner to promote the interests of the policy-holders. The fact is, that block of stock gave control of the management of the corporation, with its vast aggregation of money, and recent developments indicate that these vast deposits have not, at all times, been used with an eye single to the welfare of the policy-holders. These funds are not the patrimony of the officers, or of the sons of the founders; they are trust funds, and we should have stringent regulations to prevent their manipulation and diversion.

We should have more stringent regulations for the preservation of the purity of the ballot. The safety of this nation depends upon the purity of the ballot, and upon the confidence that people have in its purity. The nation is stable because the people generally believe that, at the ballot-box, they may change conditions, if these conditions are not satisfactory. Now, I speak not of the purchase of votes. That is not the greatest danger. The most insidious, and the most prevalent offences against the ballot, are the manipulation of elections by fraudulent registration, fraudulent voting, tampering with ballots, and dishonest counts. It is a well-known fact, that these methods are generously practiced, in most of the large cities of the country. We should have more stringent regulations, and more rigid enforcement of the regulations that we have, for the protection of the ballot, and for the punishment of all forms of manipulation of ballots and of elections.

But after all, what we most need is not more laws, but the better enforcement of those we have. I speak not of the enforcement of so-called blue laws. I assume no debatable ground. I speak of the enforcement of those laws, which everyone concedes, and most people desire, should be better enforced.

After all, the character of the government of any people, is determined not so much by the perfection of their laws as by the use that they make of them. You could plant the constitution of the United States in Morocco, but it would not establish a constitutional government. You could plant there the jury system and the bill of rights, but they would not be a guarantee of safety of person or property.

There are two kinds of crimes: those which are primarily a crime against the individual, and incidentally a crime against society, and those which are primarily a crime against society and incidentally a crime against individuals. The second class of offences causes most trouble, because there is no one especially injured, to complain. But of recent years this class of crimes has been receiving much attention.

There are two great movements paramount in the minds of the American people to-day. One is the destruction of graft, and the other is the suppression of that respectable lawlessness which perverts the law for purposes of business gain, and that respectable corruption which tenders as its excuse the protection of business interests.

For some years past there has been a growing demand for the enactment and enforcement of laws to restrain the encroachments of aggregated wealth. Manifestations of this movement are found in the interstate commerce act and in the so-called Sherman anti-trust act of 1890. This movement has been met by persistent efforts to circumvent these laws. Able attorneys have been employed, not for the purpose of conforming the conduct of their clients to the laws, but to devise means of evading them, and it is a notorious fact that laws of this character have been persistently disobeyed by those of high station in life. And herein is one of the great perils that confront us at the present time. The greatest danger to the republic lies in the violation of its laws by those of high degree. Persistent violation of law leads to contempt for law and authority and the spectacle of a man of wealth and attainments, and intelligence, and culture, systematically defying the law is producing a wide-spread contempt for law and authority.

Much has recently been said and written on the subject of "Graft." Some one has said, "There are to-day in the United States, but two political divisions — graft and anti-graft, — those who believe in legislating and administering the government for the whole people, and those who, through a long series of years have cunningly devised schemes for using the government for the purpose of private gain and who are determined to continue so doing."

There is no question in which division the great mass of people wish to be found. They applaud a prosecutor, or a mayor, or a governor, or a president who takes up the cudgel for the suppression of graft. They like that sort of officials. They could have them all of the time. But the trouble is that reform movements lack two things — intelligent and organized direction — and persistency. A vigorous circuit attorney was, two years ago, prosecuting grafters in St. Louis. He was applauded. But the important question is who is doing it to-day and who will do it to-morrow, and in the years to come? The trouble is that the mass of people who desire good government and the enforcement of law, make no business-like effort to get it. If such men would, year in and year out, make politics part of their business; if they would realize that spasmodic movements are not reforms, and would properly and persistently direct their efforts, they would be invincible, for an aroused public sentiment is invincible. But they do not do these things. They speak of a "politician" as a term of reproach; they boast that they keep aloof from politics. In a sense they do not lack patriotism. These same men would shoulder a musket, if their country were in danger. They have the patriotism necessary to meet the problems of war, but not enough of the kind necessary to meet the problems of peace. They do not realize that the caucus is more potent than the sword. Their services are needed now quite as much as in time of war. It is safe to say there never was so much graft as right now. Not because people are worse than ever before, but because never before was there the occasion or the opportunity. There were never so many large cities nor cities so large, never were there so many or so large special interests, and the stakes to play for were never so large.

These are practical propositions, and they must be met in a practical way. What we need is a higher sense of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship; on the part of the people a more active and persistent guardianship of their own interests and of their own institutions; more prosecuting officers, more mayors of cities, more governors of states and more presidents of the United States who will demand the enforcement of law, and a more vigorous and persistent backing by the intelligent sense of a people, who recognize that such work is never done. I plead for this higher sense of public and private duty. I have abundant faith in the capacity of the American people to solve their own problems. Our people have shown the most wonderful adaptability to circumstances of any people the world has ever known. They have met great emergencies, and solved great problems, not always in the most direct manner that theory could devise, but in some practical manner without jeopardy to their liberties. The hope of the future is in the overwhelming sense of justice of the American people, which needs but to direct itself along proper lines. When the American people come to the full realization of any wrong they supply the remedy.

THE STATE REFORMATORY.

BY FRANK L. RANDALL.

The title will be understood as applying to an institution for the care and treatment of young men who have offended against the criminal law. Reformatories are the outgrowth of a rational belief that all persons convicted of the same offense are not thereby conclusively proven to belong to the same class of hopeless felons, and that it is worth while to attempt to sort them out, and save to decent citizenship all the likely material, while properly and humanely disposing of the rest.

Reformatories are hopeful and interesting things, and it has been thought that the people of the western half of the United States might care to hear of them, and to consider what they

might hear, to the end that such institutions might perhaps be established among them.

Most of the reformatories receive only young persons who have been convicted of felony, and who might, in the discretion of the committing judge, have been sent to the state prison. Theoretically they are first offenders, but as the courts are not fully advised as to the past experiences of those who appear for sentence, particularly those who plead guilty without trial, and those who are transients, it very frequently occurs that men are sentenced to reformatories who have served terms in prison or whose criminal bent is most pronounced. Among reformatory inmates are sometimes found insane persons and epileptics, as well as others who are not within the legal age limits. Hence it seems that the theory on which reformatories are established has never been fully and fairly tried out, though enough has been accomplished to demonstrate the great value of these institutions, and the improvements in legislation and management which readily suggest themselves to the thoughtful mind will manifestly increase their usefulness, and augment their efficiency.

Persons who are familiar with the subject know that the cost of crime is a great but unappreciated burden upon the people. It is conservatively estimated that each criminal at large is a drain upon the productive portion of the population of at least $1,600 per annum, and that the annual total money cost of crime in the United States is in excess of $300,000,000, a considerable portion of which is capable of being saved by the adoption of common-sense methods of dealing with convicted persons, to say nothing of the preventive methods which might be employed, but with which this paper cannot properly deal.

An institution which turns from a criminal career a person who would otherwise have engaged in a life of crime, is worth to the people the sum of at least $1,600 per annum, during such number of years as that person would have otherwise lived in condition and position to follow his non-social tendencies. On this basis, or on any fair basis of computation, a state reformatory for young men is a good business investment, to say nothing of the humane side. This matter is adverted to because reformatories for young men cannot be properly conducted for the same

per capita expense that applies to the average detention prison, and on that account they have been objected to as expensive. When the subject is fully or even fairly well understood no one would make a point of the necessary expense, except as one might argue for inferior tools for the mechanic, or poor seed for the agriculturist, or damaged medicine for the sick, on the score of economy.

The aim of a reformatory should be to do all the things which are best for the inmates, and every person connected with it should have this aim constantly in mind. This does not mean that discipline should be slack. On the contrary, it means that discipline should be most firm, and obedience and respect should always be most noticeable. Young men who commit discoverable crimes are mostly of the thoughtless, careless and unsystematic kind. Discipline and prompt obedience tend to cure those shortcomings. Orders to them should be delivered in a kindly tone, and, when addressed to an individual, should be in the form of a request. This will be found to be a new experience to many young men, whose directions have always reached them in the imperative mood, and who have never thought that gentleness could characterize authority and efficiency.

They should be required to observe silence, except at stated times, that they may learn how little value their talk is to the accomplishment of results, and how much better it is for each one to think about his employment, undistracted by the garrulity of any one. It tends also to cure them of the use of profane and otherwise offensive language.

They should be required to keep their persons cleanly, and their clothing and rooms neat, that they may learn self-respect; and for this purpose they should be provided with all the necessary appliances in the most attractive form. Thus they are likely to learn to subsequently avoid the environment which formerly they thoughtlessly deemed to be as good as they might expect. Their shoes or slippers should be shined for Sunday inspection, and for all assembly hall occasions, their hair neatly brushed, their cravats tastily tied, their Sunday suits carefully groomed, their faces freshly shaven, their teeth brushed, and their bearing should be that of a good soldier. Shaving outfits should be furnished to them, and they should be encouraged to learn to shave them-

selves, and to do it as often as their comfort or personal appearance might require.

Whenever the weather permits they should drill daily in the enclosure, and the United States army tactics should be used. This teaches prompt obedience and manly bearing, and fits them for the service of their country in case of need. Most convicted persons are slouchy in gait and appearance. They should be required to attend school at least until they shall have completed the grammar grades, so that they shall not regard themselves as inferior in education to the average man, and to enable them to accept promotion when it shall later be offered to them.

It will be found that their religious training, like their secular education, has been neglected. To supply the deficiency, circumspect clergymen, and other teachers of religion, should be called in to instruct those who express a desire for their ministrations, and to counsel them concerning matters with which the state cannot more directly deal, but there should be no compulsion in this regard, and they should be left absolutely free to make their own selection of the sectarian instruction. It will be found that the best results will be achieved when inmates follow the religion of their people, or the religion to which they believe that they have a leaning. If good men need religious instruction and practice, it must be conceded to be well for less worthy men to have it.

When they are crippled or disabled and an appliance can be utilized to, in a greater or less degree, overcome the disability, it should always be provided, regardless of expense. No one-legged man should go out of a reformatory on crutches. When their teeth require attention, a dentist should be called in, and when they have pain, it should be alleviated. When seriously sick, the best of care in a proper hospital should be provided; and when surgery is required, it should be had. The idea of suffering in helplessness and unregarded, should never be permitted to find lodgment in their minds, and of grievances they should have none, if preventable, for the man with a grievance is lost, unless he can outgrow or overcome it.

On Sunday there should be the usual church service open to

all, and regularly there should be moral instruction by a thoughtful person, and attendance at the lectures should be compulsory.

Their smallest requests should be heeded and either granted or denied, but they should not be slighted. Every promise or intimation to them either individually or collectively should be carefully and faithfully carried out. When a matter of any particular moment to them arises they should have the benefit of the counsel of the executive head of the institution, in a personal interview, unless a subordinate officer can properly attend to the matter. At all times they should have free opportunity to privately lay their complaints before the superintendent or the managing board, or to communicate with any of the general state officials, including the judges of the courts.

A band or orchestra or both should be organized and maintained and music should be freely employed to enliven all proper occasions. Holidays should be observed with sports and plays, and ample grounds and devices should be provided to make these occasions an agreeable relaxation for all. Men of distinction, and other persons of parts, should be invited and encouraged to visit the institution, and address the inmates, and make suggestions to the management; and the judges should be required by law to make at least biennial inspections, reports of which should be filed, and their necessary expenses should be paid from the public treasury. None but a person in position to judge can estimate the value that would result from the visits of the thoughtful men who occupy the bench, but unless it is made a part of their duty it will be found that they will defer their visits, and most of them will eventually neglect the matter altogether. The management needs their counsel and co-operation, but many of them are too modest to realize the good that they might do. Some judges dislike the criminal calendar, and dispose of it as expeditiously as possible without slighting it, and give no further thought to it, after the procession of convicts has finally been marched in mournful review. This is not as it should be. The criminal cases and their proper disposition are matters of as much importance as civil suits for money damages, and when prejudice has been overcome by information, the work of the reformatory manager will be classed high among the learned professions. To cure the moral ailments

of men is as grand a calling as to minister to their physical distempers and mental disorders.

To vary the daily round, cheer the heart, and induce a degree of fair content among the reformatory inmates, there should be occasional musical or theatrical entertainments. A summary of the news of the day should be bulletined in the dining room, that the young men may not get out of touch with the world for which they are being prepared. A library of well-selected literature should afford choice reading at all times, and the privileges of the gymnasium should be accorded for special merit.

Each cell should be of good size, well lighted, ventilated, and heated, and should contain a comfortable bed or cot, with mirror, chair, bookstand, electric light, lavatory, and other modern water convenience, and each inmate should be held to a strict accountability for the condition of his cell and its contents. A well-equipped cell is not only better, but it is cheaper to maintain, than the old-fashioned and objectionable kind. Tobacco, in small quantities, should be permitted to those who are addicted to its use. It solaces.

In exchange for the advantages and opportunities afforded the young convict by a sentence to a reformatory, he should disclose to the management, on his arrival, for record, a full statement covering his entire life, besides other information; and prompt communication, in ordinary cases, should be had at once with all persons whose names are mentioned in the interview, either as employers, friends, parents, teachers, references, or otherwise. Sometimes a young man will decline to establish his identity, pleading that it would kill his mother or humiliate his family to have the truth known. In an experience with many such cases the writer has never encountered one in which the position was not taken for reasons purely personal to the young man, and to cover knowledge of the commission of crime, or some other dishonorable conduct. Such a person should be indefinitely detained, or transferred to some other institution, and authority to transfer from the reformatory to the detention prison and back should be had, and should be freely exercised in proper cases. If it is learned that the young man's story is untrue, he should be recalled for a second interview, and until his statements are veri-

fied, he should be held as one declining information. He can safely trust the superintendent with a full report as to himself, and leave it to the discretion and good judgment of that officer to determine as to the proper method of following up the collection of reliable and valuable information. Objection to this method of proceeding has often been made, and it has been termed inquisitorial, but its wisdom is more and more apparent as it is more and more employed, until now it is the settled policy of several state reformatories that no person shall leave them on parole who is not well known to the management.

WORK.

Every inmate in health should be kept busy during all hours not required for rest. There should be no idleness at any time, or in any place, for any person. The best results come from the teaching of trades, and from labor in productive activity. No clothing of any kind should be bought; it should all be made in the institution, including socks, shoes, caps and overcoats. All necessary printing, painting, plumbing, steamfitting, baking, cooking, gardening, stock-raising, farming, laundering, carpentry, plastering, masonry, blacksmithing, grading, tinning, butter and cheese making, fruit raising, etc., should be done by the inmates, and all material for construction should be prepared and placed by them, under competent instruction. The buildings should be of the most enduring character, and fireproof. The general yard should be enclosed by a permanent wall, and the farm and garden should be of considerable size. Indoor work is not to be especially favored, and the men who are to be employed in shops should be carefully selected, after the physician has been consulted. Other things being equal, men should work in lines for which they have either taste or aptitude.

Experience will show that very few of the inmates will have been bred to any mechanical trade or occupation, and that by the time they become competent, they will go out on parole, but this should be regarded as an encouraging rather than as a disheartening fact, though it will militate against the accomplishment of industrial results that might otherwise be shown. Every one should be required to do each day one full honest day's work.

To those who have been accustomed to it, there will be no hardship. To those who have never done manual labor, some indulgence must be shown at first, until their muscles become hardened, and their bodies strong, but it is believed that every young man should, at some time in his career, become inured to hard work, in order to develop his physical powers, and that he will feel the benefit of it, as long as he may live.

In some states the labor organizations have brought about legislation compelling idleness in all state institutions of detention for misconduct, and wherever such an unhappy situation exists the name of the reformatory should be changed, for there is neither reformation nor favorable re-adaptation for the delinquent in idleness. Work is as necessary as air, water, or food, and every person of even limited acquaintance with the subject, knows this fact. Any one doubting it may be convinced of its truth in twenty-four hours, by spending that brief period of time unoccupied. Laws which keep unfortunate people in narrow bounds with nothing to do are worse than cruel. A stand must be made somewhere, and by some officials in the matter of prison labor, and the stand taken should be carefully decided upon, in advance, and manfully maintained. It requires courage and intelligence to deal with the subject successfully, even though there is but one prison laborer to one hundred or two hundred laborers not in prison. Possibly on that account it is all the more difficult. Prisoners do not vote. When the people realize that the prison belongs to them, that its interests are their interests, and its failure their loss, many of the present difficulties will doubtless pass away.

In states where the establishment of a reformatory is contemplated good results might follow the calling together of the representatives of organized labor with other persons, for a discussion of the subject, and the establishment of a policy that would be fair and feasible, for all things that are fair are not always feasible. For instance, it might be understood in advance that the institution to be established shall be permitted to freely manufacture and market any product the price of which is to be paid in money raised by official taxation, and in addition should be permitted to engage in any line of manufacture not already represented in the state, without fear of subsequent restriction.

In support of the former feature it can be logically maintained that the taxpayers alone support the reformatory in a financial way, and that they are entitled to the benefit, if any is obtainable, of the labor of the inmates. Thus school furniture and books could be supplied to all the common schools of the state, clothing and shoes to all hospitals for the insane and schools for dependants and defectives and for the poor, and many other things depending upon the economic readiness with which the raw material could be obtained at or supplied to the institution, and the facilities for shipping the finished product, could be made and sent out to other state institutions, and to towns, villages, cities and counties. This subject is touched upon because of its importance. If proper employment at productive labor cannot be provided, do not attempt to establish a reformatory, because the result will be a failure. Any place characterized by enforced and continuing idleness prepares its unhappy victims for the lunatic asylum and the potter's field, and accomplishes nothing else.

No convicted person who is committed to a reformatory should regain his liberty unless there is reason to believe that it is well for him and society that he should be at large, and no person in a reformatory should be detained unless there is reason to believe that it is well for him or society that he should not be at large. This brings us to the consideration of the kind of persons who are found before the courts for sentence. There is rarely any romance about it, men are not persecuted for their religious opinions or political actions in this country. They are prosecuted for the commission of crime, and are convicted of forgery, larceny, burglary, and other offenses. If they were better men than they are they would not have violated the law, or, more accurately speaking, they would not have committed their several crimes if they had been strong enough and were well enough grounded in principle to resist temptation. They were weak, and need strengthening. Some of them can be made self-respecting, self-supporting, and safe citizens, and some of them can not. The trial judge, and the prosecuting officer can not distinguish between them. Neither can any other person at the time of sentence. Herein lies the weakness of the system of fixed terms of imprisonment, but the law requires the court to pass

judgment in the name of the people and the conscientious judge does the best he can. In many cases he knows nothing of the delinquent except what the man tells him, and it must not be thought that the man will color the facts to his own disadvantage. Impressions gained from the personal appearance of an individual are never a safe guide. The court has little else to aid him, and hoping that he is not making a mistake, or doing injustice, the good man on the bench approaches his unscientific and embarrassing task. When it is all over, the judge still hopes that he did not make a mistake, or do injustice, but he may have done so. He may have had before him a man who was of strong criminal propensities, who had done time in several states, and was wanted in several others; and on the plea that his crime was accidental, and was committed while he was flushed with an unaccustomed draught, the court has committed to prison for one year (which means ten months) a man who has never been able to stand alone, or walk straight, and who, in all probability, never will be.

The next man called for sentence may be younger, larger, uncultured and more accustomed to the open air. He had drank too much, on meeting the other man, he said, and together they had committed an unlawful act, and it was his first offense. This may have been the truth. The judge thought he dealt with him humanely when he sent him to join the first man, and other bad men, in prison; and under the circumstances he could do no better, but what this young fellow needed, and what society was interested in his having, was training in a friendly and helpful atmosphere, where he might learn the folly of crime, the happiness of right living, and the means of making his way, but he did not get it.

Mr. Henry Wolfer, of Minnesota, has had more than thirty years of active experience in the prison work of several states, and the people of that state hope that he may serve them indefinitely. He is one of the foremost practical penologists of the times, and is so recognized. He has served as president of the National Prison Congress, and has contributed his full share to the good influence it exerts. At a meeting of the heads of state institutions at St. Paul in May of this year, he quoted the

statement that "on the borderland of lunacy lie the criminal population," and added that no more vexed problem comes before the medical psychologist than to determine where badness ends and madness begins. He then stated that out of a prison at Stillwater of six hundred and seventy-five there were sixty-eight who were actually insane at the time of conviction or immediately thereafter, and one hundred twenty-two who were degenerate incorrigibles, who ought to be set apart as a class by themselves, and treated as such, and that one-fourth, and possibly one-third, of all adult convicts found in state prisons are similarly afflicted.

In this country there are annually released from the prisons, by expiration of fixed sentences, probably from twenty to twenty-five thousand persons, the large proportion of whom at once become a menace to the security of life, and of property rights, not to mention the enormous expense which their temporary liberty entails on the body politic. The deplorable conditions will at once be recognized, but what is the remedy? Establish a state reformatory, with sentences on the indeterminate plan, and with full authority to transfer to prison any incorrigible, insane or defective person, whose presence in the reformatory is believed to be seriously prejudicial to the well-being of that institution, and, in order to work out the problem, have a prison, or at least a department, for the criminal insane, the insane criminals, and the defective and degenerate who are incompetent and incorrigible, for the hospitals for the insane are not designed for or adapted to the care of such persons. Segregate these almost hopeless cases from those who are to be treated for improvement on the basis of moral accountability; remove their blighting presence from the others, and keep them comfortably and safety and if need be, permanently, in a proper place by themselves. This will result in time in collecting in the reformatory the younger adult offenders who are not incorrigible or unbalanced, and from whose skillful treatment results rich and cheering may be expected. When the time comes for them to leave the institution, let them go out to some employment for which they are suited, and let them be carefully watched by prudent men and women during their period of parole. If they manifest

favorable symptoms they may be released from jurisdiction; if weak, but well disposed, the probation period may be extended; and if inclined to recidivate, they may be returned to the institution for further discipline, or for other disposition.

Paroles should be granted by the board only after a full consideration of all the facts, and the disposition of one case should never govern another, for all men are different, though their crime may be the same or similar.

The young men found in a state reformatory in the Mississippi Valley represent many nationalities, and recount many vicissitudes in various states of the Union. Most of the transients among them are more or less familiar with the Pacific coast states as a winter resort. The evidence is sufficient to cause one to believe that if the states of California, Oregon and Washington would unite or co-operate in well-directed efforts to prevent the tramps from reaching the coast country, or at least from comfortably and leisurely remaining there during winter, there would be fewer convicts in their prisons as well as in the prisons of the other states.

MANAGEMENT.

The states which have established reformatories have been pioneering, for they are essentially American institutions. The states which may hereafter establish them, should avail themselves of the experience which has been paid for and secured. If a reformatory should be established on this coast, it should, early in its career, attain standing with the best institutions of its class.

In the first place there must be no politics in or about it, and no division of authority within its walls. Select a man who appears to be the best qualified to launch and conduct it, give him plenary power, hold him to a strict accountability, and credit him with the results accomplished. Let him appoint and discharge all subordinates, and deal with them, but the managing board should deal with him alone. Whatever authority is to be delegated, let him delegate it, but let him be responsible to his superior officers for everything. Give him free hand to carry out his views, and let his personality appear all through the

work. In time he will distribute responsibility among chiefs of departments, which will tend to make them persons of individuality and initiative, who will avoid the ruts of routine, which are so fatal to institutional progress.

The man selected cannot do all the work. His chief employment will be to see that the members of his staff perform their duties, for they come in constant contact with the inmates, and influence the latter favorably or unfavorably. There are very few institutions in which the salaries are sufficient to command the services of the best talent. The majority of men are not suited to the employment. Those who are should be found, engaged and retained, and should be paid according to their value. They should possess many virtues as well as a favorable address, at least fair education, activity and vigilance, and have no serious blemishes. Such men are rare enough under all circumstances and are sought by employers and readily engaged.

Another matter of great importance is a favorable public opinion. In this respect the reformatory differs from almost all other places for the treatment of persons under disability of any kind. The measure of its success is not to be determined by the physical condition and mental attitude of the men as they come from its door, but by the manner in which they may conduct themselves in the years that follow their final release.

To aid in bringing about this result it is necessary that citizens of the state shall be prepared to take them into their shops or homes; pay them fairly for their work, and protect them from slight, ridicule, and temptation.

To the young men eligible to reformatory confinement might be added those who are becoming addicted to inebriety. They are a numerous class of likely and likeable persons, and well worth the saving in any town or state. A detention for a reasonable length of time, say one year, more or less, coupled with physical development, and the prospect of a return in case they again break over, would wean many of them from their unfortunate sociability, and deter others from going to extremes in the same direction. This course would also aid in making promiscuous drinking unpopular.

Efforts to treat drunkards have mostly been directed toward

those who were somewhat advanced in years, and deeply confirmed in their habits, and sometimes involved confinement in lunatic asylums, or other places equally distasteful and unpromising to the sane and moral person, and where adequate labor could not be executed, nor a response to disciplinary measures expected.

As a rule inebriates would be found to be tractable, agreeable and intelligent, capable of doing valuable work, and doing it well, and easily placed in suitable employment when paroled. Besides this, nearly all of them would come from the homes and citizenship of the state and return to the same when released.

This is mentioned as a matter worthy of consideration by those who may be charged with the duty of laying the foundation for the next state reformatory to be established.

The existence of reformatories with their laudable purposes has had its beneficial influence on the management of other places of imprisonment, and has led to a better understanding by the people of the fact that the life of a young man in this country is beset by many dangers and that for one to have gone a little further than his fellows may indicate that he was but a little worse than they were, who earlier restrained their incautious steps. With the elimination from the reformatories of all persons unfit or unable to respond to its curriculum a parole or discharge will be prima facie evidence that its possessor, while once in court, was afterwards deemed by competent men to be worthy of liberty, employment, encouragement and trust, that he has not drank, lied, stolen, stayed out at night, or even used profane language for the last year, and that he has had a course of instruction and discipline which is calculated to make him an earnest and well-principled person.

Then will opportunity extend its hand and open its door to the brother who once erred, so that in time he may feel with Prince Henry that:

> "Like bright metal on a sullen ground,
> My reformation glittering o'er my fault,
> Shall show more goodly, and attract more eyes,
> Than that which hath no foil to set it off."

THE STATE PRISON.

BY O. K. CUSHING, MEMBER OF THE CALIFORNIA STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

As a part of the machinery for the protection of society, the state prison is intended to operate upon two classes of people: directly upon those who have violated the law and indirectly upon those who are inclined to do so.

The theory of the treatment of the class first mentioned has, perhaps, always been to work the reform of the criminal, but to this end different means may be employed. Originally all state prison treatment was based upon the idea of punishing the prisoner by the infliction of restraint or suffering, which, while not necessarily cruel, was intended to be commensurate with his offense. Although this form of treatment has for its object the reform of the prisoner, or rather perhaps the prevention of future crime on his part, the underlying principle is compensation for the offense committed, not from the earnings of the prisoner, nor by any change of character worked in him, but by the physical or mental discomfort that the punishment entails. This principle is exemplified in those statutes which fix as a penalty for felony, imprisonment at hard labor; the difficulty of the labor being the main object rather than its value to the state in money or to the prisoner as training. The theory of all such retributive treatment is that the prisoner will not offend again for fear of further punishment.

Incidentally to this form of punishment attempts were sometimes made by prison officials to train prisoners to better habits with the object of thus effecting their reform. It has now become apparent that what may be called the reformative plan has much to commend it. Reformative treatment comprises all those methods that are designed to so change the character, habits, or point of view of the criminal that he will voluntarily become a law-abiding member of the community. The object is to so shape his mind that he will resist temptation to offend again.

As a deterrent of crime it may be assumed that the state prison will be equally efficient under either plan. The same stigma attaches in each case and one who will pause before committing a criminal act, to consider that its commission may lead to prison, will be none the less desirous of remaining at liberty because the treatment in the prison makes for reformation. In fact, reformative treatment is much more irksome and distasteful to the criminal class than any of the ordinary methods of retributive punishment. Hence, according to the generally accepted view, the reformative system should be the more effective deterrent.

We proceed to consider the two systems with regard to those who are committed to prison. It is not practicable, within the limits of this paper, to discuss this subject at length, but a few observations will suffice.

As will be seen, the reformative plan appeals to the prisoner's reason, the retributive plan seeks to compel obedience by force. It must be conceded that one who becomes by preference a law abiding citizen is apt to be a more useful member of society than one who is restrained from the commission of crime only by fear. Were the two systems equally effective in preventing crime, this fact alone should commend the plan that leads to reformation. But they are not equally effective. Experience with the modern reformatories for first offenders, now established in many states, has shown that the reformative system is a great improvement upon the retributive plan. It may also be suggested that the reformative treatment, being more irksome than the other method to the average criminal, carries with it the element of retribution, if that be of any value.

It will be assumed, therefore, without further discussion, that the form of prison treatment which tends to effect the reformation of the prisoner is the form best calculated to protect society.

Everyone who pretends to be at all conversant with penology knows something of the excellent results obtained in the treatment of first offenders in the modern reformatories. There seems to be no good reason why the inmates of the state prison

should not be subjected, as nearly as practicable, to the same kind of treatment. Except that the inmate of the reformatory is younger and likely to live longer, the reformation of each is equally important to the state. With the state prison convict, usually older and more hardened in crime, the work will be more difficult. This is no reason for shirking it, however, and any attempt at reformative work should embrace the treatment most likely to be effective. That treatment is best exemplified to-day in the modern reformatory. It seems to have been assumed in most of the states that a reformatory must be established before the work of reforming criminals can be begun. With few exceptions little or nothing in the line of reformative work is done in the state prisons. Most of the state prisons to-day are little better than overgrown county jails. The prisoners are herded together in the yards during their idle hours, of which there are many, and little or no effort is made to train or educate them. Society seems to think that its duty is done when the criminal is convicted and locked up, to work and eat and sleep for a term of years. It is remarkable that under such conditions any man reforms after having served a term in prison. That men do come out of such prisons and lead good lives thereafter is an earnest of what may be accomplished by an effort in the right direction.

If criminals can be reformed by certain treatment in an institution called a reformatory, they can also be reformed by similar treatment in a state prison. Not all can be reformed in either institution. Naturally more will fail in the prison than in the reformatory; but everyone should have a chance. There is nothing mysterious about the reformatory treatment, and nothing that makes it impossible of application in its main essentials to the state prison. This is not mere theory, for the reformative system has been adopted in some state prisons with most excellent results. Many states will find it impracticable to establish a reformatory separate from the state prison. No state can treat in its reformatories all criminals who are capable of reformation. Every state can extend the reformative system to its state prison. It is the duty of the state to reform and make

a good citizen of every criminal, if possible, just as it is its duty to educate every child. Let it not be assumed that nothing can be done until new buildings are erected and given a new name. Reforms are worked by men and not by buildings. We need reformatories, but they will not supersede state prisons, and as long as we must have these institutions they should be made as effective as possible. Every state prison should be designed and conducted for the purpose of reforming its inmates. Many prisons can be so changed that they will be fairly effective in this respect, and the changes should be made now.

Those who find their way into the state prison will fall into three general classes. First, those who may be called accidental criminals, including persons convicted of crime committed in the heat of passion and many of those guilty of embezzlement, and other offenses that result from the weak character of the perpetrator rather than from any malicious intent. Second, those guilty of crimes committed with malicious or criminal intent, but who, nevertheless, may be reformed. Third, those habitual or confirmed criminals who cannot be reformed. This last class should be released from imprisonment only by death. When it has been ascertained that reform is impossible, the criminal should be employed in some work that will, if possible, compensate the state for his care and, in this situation, he should be kept to the end of his days, because he is unfit to be free.

The members of the two other classes should be subjected to the reformative treatment, concerning which the following suggestions are given.

The first absolutely indispensable requisite of every good prison is a separate cell for every inmate. Without this the best results cannot be obtained. Every human being in or out of prison should have some time during every twenty-four hours when, alone and away from the influence of his fellows, he may have an opportunity for reflection and for that mental relaxation and readjustment of the nervous system, that cannot otherwise be obtained. The single cell makes for self-control, decency and clean living, the congregate cell is degrading and bad.

There should, of course, be a wall around the entire prison.

Without this there will be ever present a spirit of unrest that will be subversive of discipline and will render the best results impossible of attainment. The prison buildings and yards should be suitably arranged for classifying the prisoners. Classification not only affords the warden the best means of passing intelligently upon the qualifications of each individual, but it is an excellent means of discipline. The most approved method is to divide the prisoners into three classes or grades, the highest grade having the most privileges. The new arrival is put into the second or intermediate class and in due time moved up to the first or down to the third as he deserves. All the men in any given class should be treated alike as to food, clothing and supplies.

The great incentive to reform in the modern prison is the so-called indeterminate sentence. This method of sentence is absolutely essential to effective reformative work in a state prison. By the indeterminate sentence the prisoner is simply committed to the prison. The duration of his term is not fixed and depends upon himself, although up to this time most of the states that have adopted this form of sentence have seen fit to fix a maximum term beyond which the prisoner cannot be held. Without pausing to discuss the advisability of this limitation, a few of the advantages of the indeterminate sentence may be pointed out and incidentally some of the disadvantages of the definite term system. Under the former the prisoner is confronted with the proposition that the time of his discharge depends entirely upon himself. This seems perfectly logical and just; he is imprisoned because he is unfit to be at liberty, and not until he has shown himself fit to be restored to liberty should he be released. The incorrigible or confirmed criminal should not be released at all. Here one of the illogical features of the definite term system becomes apparent, for under that rule, without regard to the prisoner's fitness for liberty, he is discharged because a certain day has been reached, even though the prison officers may know that he goes out to offend again. The indeterminate sentence imposes upon those who come in daily contact with the prisoner for months or perhaps years, the duty of deciding when he may be safely restored to liberty. The definite sentence re-

quires the judge to fix in advance the duration of the imprisonment, thus imposing upon him the duty of determining the effect upon a man with whom he is unacquainted of treatment in a prison he may never have seen, under conditions not yet in existence. The indeterminate sentence imposes a grave burden upon the warden; but his situation is such that he can perform this duty more fairly to the prisoner and so as to afford more adequate protection to society than can the judge under the definite sentence law. The indeterminate sentence is a most powerful incentive to good discipline in the prison. Under the definite sentence every convict in a prison can tell you instantly to a day how long he has to serve. The same desire for liberty that fixes this day in the convict's mind will constantly operate under the indeterminate sentence to remind him that only by conforming cheerfully to the prison rules can he regain his freedom. Conformity to the rules under the reformative system includes not only the proper performance of the daily labor, but also a certain amount of study and physical and mental training, until, under the influence of constant exercise, qualities of industry and decency are developed together with perseverance that will enable the prisoner to withstand temptation when he again meets the outer world.

This leads to another advantage of this system, namely — release on parole. When, at the expiration of the term of a definite sentence, the prisoner walks out, a free man, he is free in theory only. His difficulties are enough to daunt the stoutest heart. Furnished with a cheap suit of clothes and a few dollars in money, without influence or friends, distrusted, perhaps, by the prison officers who know him best, he must be strong indeed, who does not drift back to crime. He can hardly hope to secure any position except that of an ordinary laborer. An application for anything higher will lead to an investigation of his past and that he cannot afford. Even if a position be secured he may be subjected to blackmail by former fellow convicts. What wonder then if he resumes his criminal career?

The position of the man released on parole is entirely different. He has the recommendation of the prison officials after

being under their daily observation for months or even years. A position is secured for him before he leaves the prison. He cannot be blackmailed, for his employer knows his record. The prison officials watch and assist him. The knowledge that delinquency on his part will result in his return to prison is a constant incentive to good conduct. Thus the state's hold upon him is relaxed gradually, as one releases a child learning to walk, and finally he may be trusted to stand alone and becomes once more a useful member of the community. It is apparent that it is essential to the successful operation of the parole system that the prisoner be kept track of until he is finally discharged. This is necessary in order that he be kept close to the line of duty and away from evil company, and that he may be returned to prison if he fails.

The reasons which demand the surveillance of paroled prisoners apply also to the case of the prisoner discharged at the expiration of a definite term. The indeterminate sentence law carried to its logical conclusion would permit of no prisoner being discharged otherwise than on parole. It would be desirable to have all prisoners paroled before final discharge, if possible, even if they be committed for definite terms. Justice to the prisoner and a regard for the interests of society alike demand that the state give the discharged prisoner a fair opportunity to lead a decent life, and this can be done most effectively by first tentatively releasing him on parole.

It remains to consider briefly the treatment of the criminal while in prison. It is here that the most room for improvement will be found. One of the greatest difficulties to be encountered in this connection is the labor problem. In those states where reformatories have been established, public opinion has been educated to tolerate to some extent unremunerative educational employment for the inmates. In the state prisons throughout the country the theory has been, almost without exception, to adapt the employment of the prisoners to three ends, to punish the prisoner, to make money for the state, and to avoid competition with outside industries. If the views outlined in this paper are correct, this is a mistaken theory. As far as prison industry is

concerned it should be adapted to the reform of the prisoner rather than to his punishment; and the earning and saving to the state, while not to be lost sight of, should be subordinated, if necessary, to the same end. The subject of competition in industries between prisoners and freemen is one not easily disposed of. Those who advocate non-competitive industries seem to forget that the prisoner will be a competitor when he is free, and that it is better that he should be fitted to earn a living than that he be skilled in some industry to be found only within prison walls. The unskilled and ignorant constitute the largest class of criminals. This is to a great extent the fault of society itself and, having failed in its duty to the child, the state should not complain that it is expensive to reform the stunted and misshapen man. The same reasoning demands that a state prison should afford proper educational facilities including good instructors, physical training, military drill and, in short, everything that experience has shown to be effective in working the reform of the criminal.

Even if a prison have all the essentials just mentioned, it will be a failure without that most important factor in its successful administration, a good warden. It is safe to say that no position in the public service is so difficult to fill satisfactorily as that of warden of a state prison. He must be a man of the highest integrity and strictest justice, for a great business institution of the state is under his control and the destinies of many men are in his hands. He should have a broad and liberal education, a keen insight into human nature, and a thorough knowledge of the habits, traits and character of criminals. Untiring energy, physical vigor and courage he will need in abundance. Executive ability, tact, patience and uniform good nature will be required in solving the perplexing problems with which he will be constantly confronted. His personal character and habits of life should be such as to be a constant example to the prisoners. He must be an industrious student that he may keep himself acquainted with the ever widening field of the science of penology. With all of these qualities he must combine a thorough knowledge of his duties and his heart must be in his work.

The warden should select his subordinates and should be held responsible for the proper management of the prison. Under no circumstances should any appointment be made for political reasons.

To conclude, it is the attempt of this paper to show that the modern state prison should be a reformative institution; that our existing prisons can be adapted to that end, and that now is the time to begin the work.

X.

Defectives.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY H. A. TOMLINSON, M. D., CHAIRMAN, ST. PETER, MINN.

It is one of the truisms of the history of philanthropy, that public enterprise, when directed toward the alleviation of human ills, always begins at the wrong end, and is satisfied with the effort to ameliorate what ought to be prevented and in the methods used, provides for the care of the resulting conditions, rather than the elimination of the causes of these conditions. Then, too, philanthropic effort is prone to follow the lines of least resistance, and ignore what is disagreeable, offensive, or exacting; while it gives sympathy and undue attention to mere helplessness and inefficiency. This is especially true with regard to the attitude of philanthropy toward the defective and the degenerate. It would seem that there is nothing so potent as tradition; and it is a fact that men may be possessed of knowledge that never influences them in their beliefs or actions; although they may use its terminology in the current discussion of the given subject.

This attitude, so far as the mentally defective are concerned, is well outlined in a statement made to me, in this connection, by Mr. Chas. C. Krauskopf of Chicago; from which I quote, as follows:—"I am not so well informed in regard to the insane, but in my work as special examiner in the Chicago schools, I found that the idiotic, and feeble or passive cases among the weak minded, excited the sympathy of the ordinary citizen, and for him there is proper provision made in the state institutions. The troublesome, active, erratic individual who is subnormal mentally is usually treated as simply a bad, improperly trained

child, and coercive measures and punishments, logical and illogical, are urged. There seems little disposition to examine, grade, and prescribe for these unfortunates."

The following quotation from a paper on the early treatment of insanity describes this same attitude toward the insane. "The greatest difficulty in the way of progress in the medical treatment of the insane, is that we are prone to think of the future in terms of the present. When we consider the doing of an act in the future, we always have a picture of the present in our minds. Therefore, when we try to consider insanity as a manifestation of disease, just as we would scarlet fever or pneumonia, there comes up in our minds the picture of the wild-eyed individual, with matted hair and torn garments, whose presence fills us with superstitious fear; and we instinctively think of him as the victim of demoniac possession; forgetting, that, like the scarred victim of smallpox, as we used to see him, he is simply the result of the conditions our ignorance and superstition have placed him in. Unfortunately, too, we are further hampered by the fact that present conditions are in a great measure beyond our control, because they have been moulded into public opinion and fixed by statute. Public opinion does not seem able to realize that if we treated the insane man as we do any other sick man, he would cease to exist as we now imagine him, an unsocial being. Again, in considering the necessities for his care and treatment, nothing is appreciated but his clothing, housing and feeding. The acutely insane man is thought of as a sort of wild animal to be kept out of sight; while the chronic, quiet and well behaved dement, for whom nothing need or can be done, receives the sympathy and interest of the sentimental and philanthropic, because there is nothing shocking to the sensibilities in his behavior, or offensive in his appearance; besides all of his needs are supposedly familiar to the general public."

It is unfortunate that the general public considers that the practice of medicine is constituted in the prescription and administration of drugs, and, that, therefore, the physician has no other function than to prescribe and administer drugs. This belief is doubly unfortunate when it is the basis for the consideration of what is necessary to the proper care and treatment of

the mentally defective and the insane; because it involves the inability to conceive of disease, except as it exists in some form that physically disables its victim. Modern methods of investigation have taught us the intimate relation and correlation of the functions of the brain and the general organism, and their interdependence. We have also learned that the functioning of the brain is dependent upon the bodily organs; and that disturbance or inefficiency in the functional activity of these organs may be, and often is manifested in perverted mental activity. This is especially true when, either from defect or instability, the brain capacity is below normal. Therefore the direction in which we are to look for advance in the study, care and training of those who are defective mentally, must be by the correlation of the physical with the mental, based upon the fact that the two are always associated. The individual who is defective mentally is handicapped physically, even where the physical defect is not apparent in some gross aspect. We have to remember that the nervous system directs the activities of the general organism, and if it is defective in its organization or limited in its capacity, the vital organs are by that much lessened in their potentiality. Therefore, in the organization of our institutions for the care of defectives it is of primary importance that due provision should be made for the thorough investigation of physical conditions associated with mental defect, and the pedagogic aspect of the work should be supplementary rather than dominant, as it is now. When the defective child is received into the school there should first be a thorough investigation of his physical make-up, with regard to general nutrition; physical capacity; and the presence or absence of organic disease or defect. This investigation should be followed by the study of the individual with regard to the influence of these defects upon the degree of mental capacity present, and the extent to which development is possible. The result of the application of these methods would be a classification, not according with the apparent capacity of the child when he entered the school, but according with his potential capacity, both mentally and physically, and the development of both could be provided for. In this way a great deal of wasted effort might be prevented and more children permanently bene-

fitted. Furthermore, the attention and interest of the school should not be centered upon those who are apparently the brightest, pleasantest, and most agreeable. On the contrary, where there is stupidity, obstinacy, violence and insubordination, there should also be systematic effort to determine if there is not a physical cause for these conditions, and, if possible to remove this cause. If this method was followed, instead of there being the rapid increase of custodial cases that there now is in our schools for the feeble minded, there would be a larger number sufficiently trained to care for themselves under supervision, and the conditions which make the care of this class of people so difficult and disagreeable a task, would be eliminated.

That these same methods should apply to the work in our hospitals for the insane ought to be obvious. And yet, in all of the literature of philanthropic effort for the betterment of the care of the insane, the question has practically always been considered from the standpoint of the chronic, quiet and well behaved dement. The disturbed case has been tacitly ignored, because he was disagreeable to be with, and his appearance and behavior alarming. It is for this reason that the general public does not appreciate the greater relative importance of the investigation of the causes of disease; nor do they consider the futility of effort, where the reason for its application is not known. That is why so little consideration is given to the importance of systematic investigation, both at the bed-side and in the laboratory, in our hospitals for the insane, in the study of the individual patient. Under the influence of tradition, everything is taken for granted, and the patient is thought of as a feeble-minded creature, whose condition inspires an impersonal sentiment of pity; as a wronged and persecuted individual, whose friends and relatives have conspired with the officers of the hospital to deprive of his liberty and rights; or as a wild beast, to run affrighted away from, or gaze at with the morbid curiosity that prompts the visitor to the managerie or dime museum. Unfortunately there still persists the mediæval tradition that the mind, so-called, is an entity, independent of the body and its functions; therefore the care of the insane is thought of

only from the standpoint of the custody of those who are considered to be dangerous to be at large.

Much has been said and done in the direction of providing room and agreeable surroundings for the chronic, quiet and well behaved patient; but practically nothing is said about or thought of the proper provision for the disturbed patient, either acute or chronic; with the result that this class of patients, that needs the greatest amount of care, and for whom the most room and the best facilities are required, are crowded into the closest quarters, they receive the least attention, and no share of the sympathy of the general public. In the public mind the tendency still persists to look upon the care of all the insane from the standpoint of the clothing, housing and feeding of the chronic, demented patient; therefore the difficulties that have arisen and still persist, are due to the retention of the asylum regime, and the effort to make it applicable to the performance of hospital work.

Until very recently it has not been appreciated, that the habits as well as the behavior of the insane are largely influenced by their physical condition; and that idleness, filthy habits and destructiveness, have their cause in impaired bodily functions. Finally the behavior and deportment of the patient are largely the reflex of the conduct of his caretakers; so that the trained intelligence that manifests itself in a quiet voice, courteous manner, and a proper dignity not only impresses the patient but establishes a standard that he will emulate.

It would seem, then, that what is needed is a more active interest on the part of those engaged in philanthropic effort, in the education of public opinion to the appreciation of the importance of the provision of room and facilities in our institutions for the care of the defective, for the investigation of the physical conditions associated with mental defect; and the development of methods for the care of the feeble-minded and the insane, that shall have for their object the provision of a sound body as the basis for the cultivation of imperfectly developed, or the restoration of lost mental capacity.

THE ASSISTANCE OF DESTITUTE CONVALESCENT AND RECOVERED PATIENTS, DISCHARGED FROM HOSPITALS FOR INSANE.

BY RICHARD DEWEY, A. M., M. D., WAUWATOSA, WIS.

This is a subject whose importance has not been appreciated in this country, and yet a moment's consideration would show us that of the large number recovering and going out into the world from our insane hospitals, there must be a great proportion for whom the renewal of the struggle for existence is peculiarly difficult, and for whom timely assistance would make all the difference between a more or less speedy relapse, or prolonged and permanent good health.

From 25 to 35 per cent. of the patients annually discharged are reported recovered; amounting to scores and even hundreds in our more populous states; of whom a very small proportion possess any adequate means of subsistence without toiling for their daily bread. Moreover, there is quite an additional per centage of patients who remain for years and sometimes permanently in the hospitals because they cannot be sent out; a little friendly care and oversight of whom would put them in a self-supporting position, and thus make room in the crowded wards for new cases.

The objects which suitable assistance and after care would secure would be:—

1. The permanent restoration of many cases that relapse, and self-support instead of public support, for years or a lifetime.

2. The return to useful activity of many who remain permanently in the asylum who could care for themselves if they "could get a start."

It is self-evident that convalescence from insanity, as much as from any severe disease, is difficult and needs to be promoted. If, therefore, the value of convalescent homes is recognized in connection with our general hospitals, it certainly should be for our insane hospitals and for the increasing numbers who, under modern and enlightened methods of treatment, recover from mental

maladies. Not only is there a critical period of weakness for such patients when discharged, but there is also an added difficulty in the fear and prejudice of the public in general, which (however needless and ignorant) nevertheless has to be reckoned with. In this latter respect the patients suffer as much, though innocently, as one who has been an inmate of a penal institution, and if aid societies for ex-convicts are commendable, still more so would be any aid extended to one who has regained health in an asylum.

It is known, though perhaps only to a few, that the consideration above adduced have led to organized effort in other countries. In London an "After Care" association has existed for over a quarter of a century, with a large membership of the most benevolent and enlightened whose small annual subscription suffices to help scores of patients every year toward self-support and permanent restoration. In Paris, the "Societé de Patronage" for the recovered insane has maintained, since 1848, a career of singular benevolence. Its aid is extended in the following ways: First, by receiving patients at its industrial home and giving them employment for a term not exceeding 3 or 4 months. Secondly, by giving Sunday social reunions and dinners to the patients, thus affording an oportunity to "keep tab," so to speak, upon them. Thirdly, by aiding patients in their homes. In the year 1891, for which I came across a record[1] 52 persons were received, 51 were placed where they had homes or employment, 1 was returned to an asylum, 2 died and 2 were returned to their own countries. One thousand five hundred and four were present at the successive Sunday reunions, and six hundred and forty-six persons were aided in their homes. About $7,000 were expended in the above work. The industrial home has a capacity of forty.

In France, valuable work is also done in the rural communities by finding employment, seeing that patients are suitably placed, by obtaining tools or other articles needed, and by keeping families together as far as possible.

The Minister of the Interior recommended to the President of the French Republic in 1889, temporary asylums or conva-

[1] Letter of Dr. Victor Parant, American Journal of Insanity, July, '94, p. 109, et seq.

lescent homes, and the Superior Council of Public Assistance, though not able for financial reasons to establish them at that time, expressed the opinion that the State ought to take the initiative in the matter.

The late Dr. Hack Tuke, in a paper read before the London After Care Society in 1894, stated that he had found after care work was organized and carried on systematically in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and Italy, as well as in England and France. In Switzerland, the model country of thrift, as many as nine societies then existed. In Milan, Italy, a home and garden are furnished as a convalescent home. Permit me here to copy from a paper I prepared and read before this Conference in 1897, an extract from the report of the London After Care Association, for 1896, showing in a concrete way the work accomplished:

A FEW OF THE CASES HELPED.

(441.) A middle aged lady. After a few weeks' stay in the country was able to resume her occupation as governess.

(293.) A girl who had been ill, except for short intervals, for years. Was boarded out at Worthing, placed in a clergyman's family, and has for the past nine months given great satisfaction. Never been able to keep situation for more than a few weeks before.

(466.) A respectable young girl with a bad home placed in service, and doing well.

(479.) A respectable orphan girl was boarded out at seaside, and afterward placed in service.

(457.) A respectable young man assisted by a grant of money, which enabled him to go and live for a few weeks with some friends in Kent, when he afterward found suitable work.

(444.) A most respectable young man, been a plumber in the employ of his father, who was now old and had many losses. Helped with a grant of money, and restarted in life.

The income from January 1, 1895, to December 31, 1895, from subscriptions, donations, legacies, and interest on investments, was £621 6s. 4d. The expenditures were £421 21s. 9d., £251 18s. 4d. were used for direct help of recovered patients, and

£170 3s. 5d. were used for the expense, salaries, rent, printing, etc.

I regret that my information is not of more recent date, but I have not had sufficient notice to gain information of later operations. I have no doubt that it would be found, by investigation at the present time, that still more important contributions to our knowledge on this subject could be made.

Considering now this work with reference to our own country, it would appear that as yet scarce a beginning has been made and that the first duty is to bring it before the community, and to make clear the great value to all concerned, of work for the indigent and convalescent insane. Work on this line of great use and importance is being done in an unsystematic way constantly. Every superintendent of every hospital for the insane has to constitute himself a "committee of one" to bring about suitable conditions for the return of his recovered patients to the world. Even patients who have means and homes and friends can only return home after a great deal of work has been done in providing proper conditions, as so much depends on environment and employment in preventing relapse, and often the friends and family show a disposition to keep the patient permanently in the asylum rather than lend him a helping hand. This is all the more true of the public authorities who have sometimes to be strongly reasoned with to be convinced the patient is able to leave the hospital and under suitable conditions will be permanently, or for a long time, a self-supporting citizen.

There are questions as to the method of doing this work, such as the establishment of convalescent homes and whether they should be connected with institutions; the creation of temporary dwelling places and means of employment; assistance of patients in their own homes; care of recovered ones to prevent abuse or neglect, and the danger of falling into vicious or intemperate ways. There is also the important question whether private benevolence alone, or public and private combined, should undertake and control the work, but all these questions await that which is the present task: viz — that of bringing plainly to the intelligence and conscience of the people at large a knowledge of the scope and value of the work. The special organiza-

tions interested in this matter have already had it ably considered before them. I refer to the American Medico-psychological Association, and the American Neurological Association, but it is *popular* enlightenment, support and sympathy, that are specially needed, and this the Conference of Charities is better able to promote than any other organization.

Another agency which may furnish great assistance is to be found in the various social settlements. The Hull House Settlement in Chicago has long been interested in and contributed to this work, and Miss Jane Addams gave it her cordial and sympathetic indorsement in speaking eloquently for it at Toronto in '97. The Charity Organization Societies doubtless also would give valuable support to this work.

I conclude by inviting attention to the rather hapless and hopeless condition of each convalescent and destitute patient who has suffered an attack of insanity, when again entering the world to renew the struggle for existence, and I earnestly bespeak the interest of enlightenment and benevolence in lending a helping hand to provide a "half-way house", a port hold and a shelter for one so sadly handicapped, a victim, not only of his own misfortunes, but of the prejudice and indifference of the world.

XI.

Needy Families.

CONSIDERING ESPECIALLY THE NEW EMPHASIS IN THE PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZED CHARITY.

BY JAMES F. JACKSON, CHAIRMAN.

If the charity organization movement is a living and growing one, to-day must find it standing before the community for ideas in some wise differing from those of ten years ago; differing, in emphasis, if not in substance, in degree of realization, if not in purposes avowed.

No social movement possessing vitality can mark time for ten years; if its efforts are at once vigorous and intelligent, they will tell. In those points on which most stress has been laid, the victory will have been at least partially won, the community will have been at least partially converted; thus allowing the main contest to be waged at other parts of the line. And furthermore, in the very process of winning, there will have been certain discoveries made; discoveries either of new principles or of modifications and fresh applications of the old.

We believe the charity organization movement measures up to this test of progress. While it stands for the same general and fundamental principles that it has advocated from the beginning, it now states them somewhat differently and applies them to greatly increased activities. In planting themselves upon the three basic principles of investigation, registration, and co-operation, the founders of the movement showed the utmost sagacity and foresight. For the first two principles — the painstaking inquiry into and the recording of as many facts as possible bearing on the problem in hand — are precisely the methods by which modern inductive science has achieved its astonishing results; while the third principle — the union of forces concentrated on a single object — is perhaps the most striking characteristic of modern

business. So well conceived, then, were these early principles that by their persistent and thorough application organized charity has reached its present stage. It is this very capacity for self-adaptation that constitutes the strongest evidence of vitality.

Let us now trace the process by which organized charity has come, as we believe, more nearly to meet its opportunities and the demands upon it.

Of the charity of fifteen years ago, it would not on the whole be unfair to say that in practice, though to a much less extent in theory, it has a negative cast. This is not an unfriendly statement; for, springing into being as a protest against the current profusion and chaos of both public and private charity, organized charity was bound, like all protests, to appear at the outset chiefly negative. This profusion of charity, it should be said, was actual only in respect to any individual that might be in question; it has never been true, except following catastrophies, that the total amount given by the community for charitable purposes was greater than the need. But in the days of an unsystematic distribution, it often happened that a given individual received considerably more than was either needful or beneficial — terms which should be and are now more often used synonymously. As the report of the Charity Organization Section of 1893 declares, investigation and registration stood to the public for a "sort of detective and repressive system" designed to eliminate imposture. Co-operation, too, had a flavor rather of preventing duplication than of being a means to the highest constructive efficiency. In the matter of treatment, more stress was laid on whether or not material relief should be granted, with the corresponding consideration of whether or not the applicant was "worthy." The work test was employed rather to sift out the "unworthy" for rejection than the "worthy" for assistance. In a word, then, even at the end of its first two decades, organized charity laid the emphasis on the defensive; while insisting on the value and importance of personal service, it applied its systematizing principles far more to giving material relief than to personal service.

In natural science it has already come to be recognized that the extreme care and exactness requisite to accurate conclusions

involve a special training. Experience presently forced home the same truth upon organized charity. Systematic almsgiving might be reduced to an easily learned set of rules; but the application of all the varied and complex social facts unearthed and recorded made increasingly severe demands upon the judgment of the charity worker. In the face of the ever enlarging mass of facts and conditions that must be reckoned with, it became more and more evident that untrained personal service was unequal to the task; as in business and science, again, there must be special training. There came a clearer recognition that organized charity cannot stop short of being thoroughgoing; it must study the social situation and analyze the possibilities and their combinations, and then focus upon the case in hand, all the applicable resources of the community. Every move must be a step in a well-considered, constructive plan. Anything less than this is scratching the surface. Such an ideal, it is obvious, demands the expert.

The change from informal to expert personal service leads at once to several other changes. Through a more thorough knowledge of the charitable resources of the community, it is possible to make a partial substitution of expert knowledge for almsgiving. For example, an experienced worker familiar with a particular field can solve its problems with less material relief than a less experienced worker new to that field. This brings up the old "bugbear of administrative expenses," which even yet is not altogether downed. Though less frequently than formerly, there are few who have to raise money for the support of organized charity who do not still encounter criticism that too much money goes to salaries and mechanism and too little directly to the people for whose benefit it is intended. Upon analysis, however, this attempted criticism turns into commendation. The reply would base itself on two queries: (1) does organized charity make good its claim to provide for the needy coming under its care? (2) does organized charity deal with the same people year after year, or does it solve the particular problems in hand and undertake others? If, as we believe, these queries must he answered favorably to organized charity, its contention is at once supported that its method is scientific, as dealing with causes,

not symptoms merely; business-like, as being most economical; and ethical, in that it involves most of the personal relations rather than the mechanical one of alms.*

If the desired results can be obtained, the less material relief, the better. Next to the abolition of all dependency, short of that ideal individualism in which each person is strong enough to manage his own life, the idea would be that such help as is given should be entirely in the nature of personal assistance in readjusting his relations and efforts so as to make them count for the most. But even if this substitution did not take place, less emphasis would now be laid on whether or not material relief is given; for that is no longer the main point. The main point to-day is to restore the individual to normal efficiency; if material aid is a means to that end, then give it; if not, withhold it. "The plan's the thing." And it immediately follows also that if relief is to be given, it must be adequate to its purpose. The final result is the true measure of the amount of relief. In the light of these growing practices the granting of material relief only, and merely enough of that to keep from starvation is shown up in its true absurdity.

Co-operation, too, is to-day much more general, intimate, and timely; more concentrated on the accomplishment of a single constructive plan, where formerly it went little beyond preventing duplication.

In general organized charity is better able through its expert service to give an intelligent, clean-cut account of itself, both for its own guidance and to its supporters. The idea is growing that philanthropic, like business enterprises, should be able and required to give strict account of themselves; and any philanthropic undertaking that wishes to command the support of the business men of the community must increasingly be able to furnish a well articulated account of its work. Just as the system

* It should be remembered, however, that whatever other activities organized charity may promote, thoughtful, painstaking work with needy families in their homes must still have a large place in the program of a successful society. The responsibility for maintaining a high standard for this work largely rests with the Charity Organization Society. In many communities the fundamental principles of organized charity have been adopted by other organizations which assist in their dissemination, thus making it possible for the central organization to undertake new work, the necessity for which is not yet generally recognized.

of bookkeeping now in use in large establishments has as its main principle the grouping of expense items under the headings of the different results obtained, so a philanthropic undertaking ought to be able to state clearly concerning itself: (1) The conditions it intends to modify; (2) the means proposed; (3) how far the means already employed have proved successful; and (4) how much those means have cost in terms of effort and money. This principle of comparing results with cost should be more generally applied by charities endorsement and kindred committees in determining what organizations should be commended and what discredited.

This demand for expert service has naturally involved a great development in the educational field. Where ten and fifteen years ago, the larger universities possessed courses in social science, they now accord it a separate department; while no small college considers its curriculum complete without some attempt in that direction. And there are now at least three special schools for the training of social workers each affiliated with a large university but dominated in its course of study by the practical rather than the academic point of view.

The same process of investigation and registration which in its working out led to the shifting of emphasis, has also led to the taking on of various new activities, and for the same reasons. Careful inquiry into the accumulation of facts has gradually forced a clearer recognition of the truth that social work, to be really constructive, can not stop at dealing with the individual cases which have already reached an abnormal condition; it must deal with the general causes which manufacture those individual cases.

The habit has been acquired of following a trail wherever it leads. The evils resulting upon overcrowding in tenement houses involves the housing problem, a critical observation of building laws and their administration, sanitation and the health department. Both the legislative and administrative departments of government, municipal and state, are seen to be important factors in the complete social co-operation towards which organized charity is working. The food and milk supply and inspection, the anti-tuberculosis campaign, child labor, indus-

trial training, public playgrounds and parks, vacation-schools, fresh air charities and summer outings, juvenile courts, — these are some of the activities into which organized charity has found itself drawn. It was interesting to observe in a recent report of a progressive organization that 17 out of 36 pages were devoted to such activities as those just mentioned.

These additions to its program not of principles, but of ways of applying them, for no doubt many of them were in mind at the beginning but were crowded out by more pressing needs, present the common characteristics of being attempts to meet community rather than individual needs. In other words organized charity is discovering for itself in practice, the truth which theorists urge — that social life is an organic unity, in which no part can be modified except with reference to the whole. No social work can be really constructive which does not view its problems in their larger relations.

This point of view opens up to organized charity a great and immediate opportunity. It is now beyond dispute that social readjustment of any kind is difficult and complicated, not to be lightly undertaken by any whose chief qualification is a stock of good intentions. If the community is to be saved from haphazard, inefficient, and unrelated philanthropies, there must be at least a small group of thinkers, able to analyze the conditions clearly and accurately and to suggest the best means of co-ordinating remedies. Unless it is one society's business to co-ordinate a city's entire social forces they will fail of their greatest efficiency. The energy available for social reconstruction is too meager at the best; and it must be so directed in its expenditure as to count for the most. Such a co-ordinating force the charity organization society can make itself if it will. It can lay before the community such a clear and convincing program as will constitute it a leader and moulder of social thought. This can be accomplished by working its fundamental principles even more tirelessly, by searching more carefully for the full significance of its accumulated facts, by demanding more expert service and by a more rigid insistence on thoroughly constructive measures.

In no spirit of dictation, but by rousing and formulating the best public sentiment, organized charity can make itself the expo-

nent of the most advanced social opinion; in fact, the center for its city's social movements. If it stops short of becoming such an initiating and guiding force it fails of a complete allegiance to its fundamental principles.

The new emphasis, then, in the principles of organized charity is in the direction of a more positive, constructive, and thorough going policy. It is manifested in the change from a more or less informal to expert personal service; in the partial substitution of this for almsgiving; in attributing less importance to material relief and more to its adequacy; in the type of co-operation that it urges, in the addition of many fresh activities; and in the acquisition of a more comprehensive view of its functions. This is in no sense an abandonment, but a fulfillment. The old things are still done; it is only because they have been and are so well done that this development is possible.

THE CHARITIES ENDORSEMENT COMMITTEE.

BY MISS KATHARINE C. FELTON, SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF SAN FRANCISCO.

The power to control the charities of a city lies latent in the giving public; is diffused among the scattered units that make up its aggregate. To make use of this latent power, to concentrate it in some one central organization, and thereby make it an effective force in guiding and directing the charities of a city, has long been recognized as one of the fundamental tasks of organized charity. And in every city which has seriously grappled with its problem of poverty there is some one organization which more or less adequately represents the giving public, in which more or less completely is vested the authority of its aggregate units. In many cities this central organization is the associated charities itself; in others, notably in Cleveland and Los Angeles, the Merchants' Association, representing, as it does, the largest organized body of givers, has vested this power in its own committee. It is the duty of this committee to investigate all char-

ities soliciting from the public, and members of the organization are asked to withhold contributions from all which cannot show the committee's official credentials. The unique feature of the San Francisco plan is this — that the central organization, the organization which represents the giving public and is vested with its authority, is neither a committee from the merchant body alone nor from the Associated Charities alone, but is a joint committee made up of representatives from both organizations. In this paper I shall confine myself to the Charities Endorsement Committe of San Francisco,— First, because before a body of experts I hesitate to present any facts for the accuracy of which I cannot myself vouch, and secondly, because it seems to me that whatever there is of value in the San Francisco plan; whatever prospects it may have of ultimate success is due to this, its distinctive feature — that it is a joint committee, deriving strength from the strength of both its parent organizations.

The plan to establish the Charities Endorsement Committee originated with the Merchants' Association. This Association is designed to further the civic rather than the commercial interests of the merchant body and is deservedly the most influential of the quasi-public organizations of the city. The plan in its final form and as accepted by the Associated Charities, provides for the establishment of a Charities Endorsement Committee which should be made up of three representatives from the Merchants' Association, two from the Associated Charities and two from the charities at large. It is the duty of this committee to investigate all charitable enterprises applying to it for endorsement and to issue its official card to such as are doing honest and efficient work. The members of the Merchants' Association are to support the committee by refusing to give to all unendorsed charities. The circular outlining this plan and asking for an expression of an opinion was sent by the directors of the Merchants' Association to its members. Of five hundred firms answering, four hundred and eighty-nine expressed themselves in favor of the establishment of the Endorsement Committee and signed an agreement to adopt as their general policy that of giving only to endorsed charities. On the strength of this vote the committee was appointed and began its duties April, 1902.

From the first the Associated Charities has been the Endorsement Committee's investigating agency and has assumed all expenses incident to its work, including the same in its annual budget, which thus provides for a central investigating bureau, comprehensive in its scope. Since the establishment of the Committee the Merchants' Association, as an organization, has contributed $600 a year to the Associated Charities.

The Charities Endorsement Committee has had from the first a well defined program, outlining three things to be done. First, To eliminate fraudulent and inefficient charities by making their financial support impossible. Secondly, To formulate in each department of charity work a standard of efficiency which shall ultimately be made the condition of its endorsement; and thirdly, through its current investigations, to obtain for itself as a committee a knowledge of the charity situation that will be unique because it is comprehensive — a knowledge that will enable it to consider and plan for the various institutions, not as separate entities, but as inter-related parts of a system of charities,— a knowledge that shall make the Charities Endorsement Committee as potent a factor in upbuilding the charity work of the city as is a State Board of Charities in upbuilding the charity work of a state.

It is hardly necessary to say to you that the plan outlined by the Endorsement Committee is an ambitious one; that the things it has set itself to do, can be done, if done at all, only after years of hard work, and that therefore any report coming at this time, when the Committee is scarcely three years old, must be a modest one, concerning itself with hopes rather than results, with things planned for rather than with things accomplished.

The founders of the Endorsement Committee feared that organizations that were wilfully dishonest or so inefficient that their inefficiency must be apparent even to their promoters, would never apply for endorsement and that in time the influence of the Endorsement Committee would be materially lessened because it would be obliged to say again and again to those asking for information that it had none to give, the opportunity to investigate having been withheld. Contrary to anticipation, however,

applications for endorsement have been received from almost every fake organization in the city.

Many undoubtedly believed that the investigation would be one in name only; that endorsement could be secured by the presentation of a few carefully doctored statistics. Such applications were often withdrawn in wrath during the progress of investigation, not however, before the Committee had secured accurate information as to the character and standing of those concerned and the method of their work. The representatives of other charity schemes seemed naively unconscious of the absurdity of the plan offered or of the work being done. The solicitor of the United Christian Church unhesitatingly answered, when asked the size of the congregation, "Me and a Chinaman," at the same time exhibiting newspaper clippings which showed that collections for the benefit of this United Christian Church had been made in almost every country district of the state.

In another case, a printed circular was presented with no small degree of pride, a circular in which the objects of the organization were thus defined: "This society is for men, women and cruelty to children," and no characterization could have been more accurate.

Thus the charity fakirs themselves have played into the hands of the Endorsement Committee, allowing it an insight into the tricks of the trade such as few professionals can boast.

So often and so successfully had San Francisco been victimized by the charity promoter that the public was ready to give its active support to the Endorsement Committee and so to insure it an easy victory over this form of graft. Of the many charity promoters that have drifted into San Francisco during the last three years the greater number have decided to leave the city at once on learning that an endorsement committee had been established and that no legitimate charity, by the terms of its endorsement, could lend its name or its support to any of their schemes. The few, who, notwithstanding failure to secure endorsement, have persisted in carrying out their original purpose, have, as far as I can ascertain, without exception, met financial loss.

While the Endorsement Committee has limited its jurisdiction to organizations and has assumed no control over the solic-

iting done in behalf of individuals, the ordinary merchant has deliberately refused to understand this distinction and has insistently demanded the endorsement card from all alike. As a result therefore — a result not contemplated by the Committee — this form of solicitation has been reduced to a mininmum.

The time had come for San Francisco to rid itself of the charity promoter, and an easy victory over this form of graft had been anticipated. Considering the proverbial apathy of the San Francisco public, even the Endorsement Committee itself has been surprised at the influence it has exerted over the charity situation. Failure to secure endorsement has led to the abandonment of any number of ill-advised projects. A number of inefficient and dishonest organizations, although they had already obtained a local foothold, have deemed it expedient to move to other parts of the state, or at least to withdraw their solicitors from the San Francisco field. Several ill-kept shelters have changed from a charitable to a commercial basis without raising their price or lowering the grade of accommodation given. And finally it may be said that not one of the organizations refused endorsement is now making an active financial campaign in San Francisco and that the few which still remain in the field are seriously crippled and are prompted to continue by pride rather than by profit. Two societies for the prevention of cruelty to children seem financially unaffected by the failure to secure endorsement, but the naive admission of the superintendent of one of them — an admission on the witness stand — that a woman had been charged $20 for a guardianship process that had cost the society $1.00 seemed to reveal a source of income independent of the giving public.

As the machinery devised by the Endorsement Committee is automatic in its workings, it is difficult to estimate the number of persons in the community who are making use of it. Little advertising has been done beyond the columns of the "Merchants' Association Review," and therefore it is fair to suppose that the Endorsement Committee's effective support comes almost entirely from the merchant body.

For the information of this Conference the directors of the Merchants' Association sent to their members a circular asking them to answer the following questions:

1. Have you found the Charities Endorsement Committee of value to you?

2. Do you find that requiring the endorsement and the use of the Endorsement Card has materially reduced the number of charitable enterprises?

3. Have you any suggestions to make in connection with the work of the Endorsement Committee?

To this notice there were three hundred and thirty-four responses, including answers from most of the large wholesale houses. Thirty-four firms replied, either that they knew nothing of the Endorsement Committee, or considered it of no value to them. Three hundred answered the first two questions affirmatively, and in a large number of instances added some enthusiastic comment, such as "Keep it up," or "Solicitations of all sorts have been reduced 50 per cent. by your work."

From these returns it is evident that the success with which the Endorsement Committee has met in ridding the city of fraudulent organizations is undoubtedly greater than is justified by its present numerical support. This is partly due to the fact that the fakirs have themselves over-estimated the strength of the Endorsement Committee, partly due to the fact that there are yet large unprotected territories in California and that it is easier and less dangerous to prey on these than to cross swords with the Endorsement Committee. When the plan in contemplation is carried into effect and the three endorsement committees, of San Francisco, Oakland and Los Angeles, unite in a concerted effort to provide adequate protection for the entire state, then, and not until then will come the real test of strength, for then the fraudulent charities will have to fight for life itself.

The Endorsement Committee has been bitterly criticised by every organization refused endorsement. That such criticism has passed almost unnoticed is due to the fact that the merchants generally consider the Endorsement Committee as a merchants' committee — a committee made up of their own members, whose impartiality is beyond question. The Endorsement Committee is never placed in the position of one charity seeming to criticise and condemn another charity.

The Endorsement Committee has defined this as its second

task,— to formulate in each department of charity work a standard of efficiency, and ultimately to make the attainment of this standard the condition of its endorsement. The word "ultimately" is here advisedly used, for not until the Endorsement Committee has made its own standards current, not until it has gained for them general acceptance, can they be enforced as a condition of its endorsement. The task it has given itself therefore is one of slow accomplishment, one that implies the gradual education of the community to the acceptance of higher ideals in charity work.

The Endorsement Committee has realized from the first that it was more dependent for ultimate success upon its influence than upon its authority, and that therefore it must have the sympathetic and intelligent support of the established charities. To obtain this support, to make the charities recognize in it an organization designed in their interest and for their protection, is a task to which the Endorsement Committee has devoted much time and thought,— a task in which it must have failed had it not resolutely kept in mind the limitations of its own authority, had it not forced itself to an acceptance of the current, not the ideal standard. And let me assure you that in a laissez-faire community, a community that has given little thought to its charity problem and in which its accepted standards are so often miserably low when measured not in terms of good intention but in terms of social value; — in such a community it has cost no little self-restraint to accept, even temporarily, and by accepting seem to sanction, the current and established standards. And yet to have adopted another course would have meant to provoke the bitter antagonism, the open hostility, of some at least of the established charities; to militate against the Committee's future influence, and to play directly into the hands of the charity grafters: For the Endorsement Committee has successfully opposed dishonesty and inefficiency because all of its first battles have been fought on this single and well defined issue.

In its constructive work,— in making its own standards current, in gaining for them general acceptance,— the Endorsement Committee must depend for ultimate success upon the fact that it can command the services and shape the policy of the Associated Charities; upon the fact that it has as its confidential agent an

organization that is also fast becoming the confidential agent of the established and legitimate charities.

In the course of its investigation three years ago the Endorsement Committee became convinced that if the children's institutions were to do effective work, work that would tend to reduce the child dependency of the state, there must be inaugurated certain radical changes of policy. These changes the Endorsement Committee formulated in terms of a standard requiring adequate investigation before any child should be admitted into an institution, the taking of guardianship in all cases where parents had repeatedly proved themselves unfit to have the future custody of their children, and the placement of these children in carefully selected foster homes.

Simple and conservative as this standard must appear to you, its direct and immediate enforcement was impossible. Many of the institutions regarded the proposed changes with distinct disfavor as a meaningless departure from a policy long established and therefore revered, while even the few that were ready to accpt them were entirely without the machinery to give them practical effect.

Under these conditions, therefore, the Endorsement Committee was content simply to formulate its standard as an ideal to be attained, while the Associated Charities, acting as its agent and under its guidance, undertook two things,— First, to convince the established charities of the value of the changes suggested by the Endorsement Committee. Secondly, to devise the machinery necessary to make the introduction of these changes practical. In this work the Associated Charities has been guided by a carefully considered plan, a plan which first led to the establishment, in conjunction with the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, of a Children's Agency. The services of the agent were offered to the institutions of the vicinity and it was to be her duty to visit the children placed in foster homes throughout the state and to find new homes for such other children as were eligible for placement. Many institutions at once availed themselves of this privilege and in the two years since its establishment the Agency has come to be a recognized part of the charity machinery of the state, creating the first trustworthy Home-Placing organization.

As was anticipated, the Agency has proved an opening wedge, for in their desire to take advantage of the homes that it has offered, the institutions have been forced to consider what legal authority they had over the children in their care, and this has led them to appreciate the importance and even the necessity of obtaining legal guardianship. To facilitate this work the Associated Charities has offered the services of its Legal Committee and its office force. Realizing that in an individualistic community like California it was necessary to overcome the strong prejudice always entertained by the court, in favor of the parent as against the institution, the Associated Charities in this legal work has adopted a most conservative policy, hoping to secure thereby for itself and the institutions which it represents the respect and confidence of the court.

The searching investigations that must be made before guardianship can be obtained have revealed to the institutions the meagreness of their own original records, while the annoyance occasioned and the time lost in obtaining information that might so easily have been obtained in the first instance, are weighing heavily in favor of the adoption of rules which require careful investigation prior to the admission of inmates.

As a result then of this work that the Associated Charities is doing as the agent of the Endorsement Committee and in pursuance of its plans, there is coming to be a sentiment in the community and especially among the leading charities in sympathy with the policy formulated by the Endorsement Committee — a sentiment, the somewhat rapid growth of which, suggests that in the course of the next few years the Endorsement Committee will be able to enforce with authority, and as the condition of its endorsement, the standard that it has itself formulated, because that standard shall then have become current,— shall then have found acceptance.

INVESTIGATION.

By A. W. Gutridge, General Secretary, Associated Charities, St. Paul.

Whatever the department of activity the first step in its improvement is to know intimately and thoroughly all the facts upon which it rests. The more complete this knowledge, the more rapid and certain the development. By having full information only can truth be wholly distinguished from error. No one questions this in most lines of study, we all believe in specialists, because we believe that they have made a deep study of the subject with which they claim to be acquainted.

The starting point in the acquirement of all this knowledge has been searching investigation. A review of what has been accomplished by investigation in everything which we hold precious ought to impel every person interested in life to encourage it, so that it should not be necessary to emphasize repeatedly the need for making thorough investigation and study of the condition of those who have fallen behind, and of the causes which have produced the dependent condition.

Doubtless, in the nearness of the question of social failure to ourselves and our life is to be found the principal reason for the slowness on our part to recognize the need for its exhaustive study. Our hesitancy to go into a deep investigation of the question is in accordance with general laws. Dr. W. J. McGee, president of the American Anthropological Association, in the May number of *Science*, says of a science kindred to ours, "It is no accident that Anthropology is the youngest of the sciences; for it is the way of knowledge to begin with the remote and come down to the near — to start with the stars, linger amid the mountains, rest awhile among rare gems and only slowly approach such commonplace things as plants and animals and soils, to end at last with man." The average person shrinks from a searching inquiry into his neighbor's life, because he feels that even if the neighbor has some weaknesses which he knows nothing about, he is really quite a good sort of a person anyway. This is natural and right; the trouble arises in carrying this

feeling too far. Many persons, upon hearing us discuss in council the faults in character of a person in distress, are likely to feel that we are wanting in love and sympathy for him. But to consider him fully in his weaknesses as well as in his strength, is the first step in the effort really to help him, the way to show true love for him. Here as elsewhere improvement can be made only through understanding. The position of the man who does not want to inquire into the life of his neighbor really is, that at heart and in the large he knows him, and therefore there is nothing further of value to learn. Being sure of his ground here he is also sure that he knows exactly what to do to relieve his distress. His superficial philosophy is — it makes no difference what his life has been, or is, he is in want. Relieve him. That will right matters. This teaching is the great obstacle to progress in the effort to bring permanent relief to the poor.

The author of a recently published work on charity says that before he caught the spirit of the Charity Organization movement his efforts in investigation were directed to the detection of imposture. This is probably true of most volunteer charity workers who have not made a serious study of the subject. Not infrequently we meet those who talk about the "worthy" and the "unworthy" poor, who tell us that they have been doing charity work for forty years and never had reason to change the plan they first adopted.

The real purpose of investigation is to learn the nature of the disease in the family reported to be socially ailing and to discover the powers in it which may make for recovery. Whether or not material relief is needed is incidental; whether or not their lives conform to our standards of morality is incidental; the cure has to do with their personality in substantially all cases. The need of investigation to detect imposture is greatly overstated. The proportion of dishonest people among those applying for relief is not much greater than among people who never apply, and the dishonest are not those most injured by unwise philanthrophy. It is but fair also to say that where the disease is chiefly one of bad morals the proportion of cures is not greatly less than when it is chiefly social or economic.

From this the reason is made clear for our insisting that the investigator should be a person of the finest feeling, breadth of view, acquainted with the charitable resources of his locality, and trained in charity organization principles. The limits which imperfect support places on our work prevents us at times from having such an agent to send into the homes of the poor, but we have him when we can get him. In the minds of many people, even of those who have come to believe that investigation is necessary, there is generally a notion that it consists chiefly in visiting the homes of the people reported to be in distress and in looking sharply into every corner for provisions or clothing or beer or wood; and if none is found, a recommendation to send in supplies is made. An investigation in the Charity Organization spirit is, however, quite another thing. The true investigator tactfully opens the way for a conversation upon the family condition. As a rule he states his business, the plan of trying to conceal the purpose is open to serious objection. His manner shows consideration for them — he is not gruff, nor does he encourage them in thinking themselves great objects of pity. There is no haste. The family history is kindly reviewed. His questions here will indicate to them the visible line of weakness in the family life. The agent's deep, unfeigned, educated sympathy leads the family to discuss things not spoken of to others. They reveal not only the amount of the supplies on hand, but also the remote cause of the physical want, and the family resources as well. There is no severe questioning. As a rule the family thinks he does not ask enough questions about flour and fuel and too many about life habits — not moral habits alone, but life habits. He delivers no lectures, but he goes away leaving them certain that he has a well-defined opinion as to their real condition and resources, and his sympathy, fairness and thoroughness command their respect. Such an investigation is decidedly constructive — is in itself an effective form of relief. If the disease is not yet chronic the investigation alone may be all the relief needed, because the thing wrong in the family is some form of defective character. The cure must be such a development of the character as will right the defect. Seed from a strong, resourceful character as is that of the investigator, is

often necessary to start this growth. It frequently has to be nourished from the same or a similar source afterwards, but sometimes the planting of the seed is enough. If in this visit the family succeed in persuading the agent to look at the difficulty from exactly their standpoint he has, as a rule, brought weakness and not strength.

Beside making the acquaintance of the mode of thought and action in the family, there are many other material things observed. The effect of the neighborhood upon the family, the sanitary condition of the dwelling, the drainage, the schools, literature, the chances of their using a park or playground, the cleanliness of the streets, the degree of lawlessness in the saloons near by, are facts to be noted. Again, the opportunities for attending lectures, or for the children to attend industrial schools, for learning to save their earnings, for having good music, are not to be overlooked. With reference to the resources within the family, to use Miss Richmond's words, "What it can do, what it can learn, what it can enjoy, what it can feel — these are the important things."

In considering the need and method of investigation, illustrations are generally drawn from cases of want of food, fuel, etc., and in this way some have come to think of it as relating wholly or chiefly to cases of this kind. But that is not the fact. Investigation is fundamental always. The person who applies to a free dispensary for treatment may be sick socially as well as physically, sometimes only socially, and there is no more reason for the physician to diagnose the bodily disease than for the person who is to treat the economic trouble to diagnose that. The same is true in the case of dependent children, day nursery children, homes for the aged and all the rest. We come back to the starting point. Whether the effort of the sociologist is to adjust the step of a person who discovers himself to be out of tune with normal social movement, or to raise the social level of a community, already normal, his hope for success lies in a thorough knowledge, acquired by investigation, of all the factors entering into the problem.

XII.

Neighborhood Improvement.

IMMIGRATION AND INDUSTRIAL SATURATION.

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Few problems have been of more importance and interest to the people of the United States than that of the open versus the closed door for immigrants. During the last three-quarters of a century, during which more than twenty millions of people have arrived on these shores from Europe, the question of the restriction of immigration versus the policy of free entry has been continuously, vehemently and often acridly discussed. All manner of arguments have been advanced and immigration has been assailed and defended on racial, on religious, on ethical, on economic and other social lines. It has been argued that the policy of unrestricted immigation unduly increases the proportion of adherents of certain religious sects, that it supplants a superior American by an inferior European stock; that it feeds our almshouses, our hospitals, our jails and our insane asylums, and that it is overwhelming our political and legal rights and subverting our political and legal philosophy. It has been described as a menace to all the social virtues of our putative forefathers, and it has finally been denounced as the great source of our illiteracy, our disrespect for law and our political corruption. Along all of these lines the policy of the open door for immigrants has been as persistently defended, and the arguments, pro and con, have filled many volumes and innumerable official reports.

In the following paper I shall endeavor to discuss the question solely from the point of view of economics and shall disregard all religious, political, racial and other social phases of the problem. I shall seek to limit the discussion to a single phase of the economic problem, the question of distribution, to the influ-

ence which immigration has upon the demand for and the character of labor, upon the wages, hours and conditions of work and life of our great working class population.

I intend to assume, in discussing this question, that the goal toward which we are striving is the ultimate welfare and happiness of the people of the United States, whether descendants of present inhabitants or of future immigrants, and that this welfare can best be attained by such an immigration policy as will tend to raise the standard of living of the great mass of our population. I intend in this paper to point out several more or less clearly recognized facts.

First: Our immigration policy in the past, with the exception of the Chinese Exclusion Law, has been one of police regulation rather than restriction or limitation of numbers, and it has not materially affected the volume of immigration.

Second: Our legislation has not in any large way affected the character, calibre or qualifications of immigrants, but has been limited to a largely unsuccessful attempt to exclude obviously undesirable immigrants.

Third: Despite the laws, our immigration has in the past constantly, though irregularly and spasmodically, increased.

Fourth: That, measured by the opportunities for finding lucrative employment, the immigration is increasing at an even faster rate.

Finally, that at our present rate of increasing immigration, a period will not be far distant when what may be called a point of industrial saturation will be approached.

That our laws have not greatly reduced the volume of immigration is very probable. The statistics of persons debarred are not conclusive, since many obviously unfit persons are deterred by their knowledge of these laws from even attempting to emigrate, but the official figures showing the number of immigrants returned to their country of origin are at least suggestive and illuminating. The laws seek to exclude idiots, insane persons, paupers, or others likely to become public charges; persons suffering from loathsome or contagious dangerous disease, convicts, anarchists, prostitutes, procurers, assisted immigrants and contract laborers.

During the year ending June 30, 1904, out of a total of some 813,000 immigrants only 6,440 persons were debarred, this percentage including a considerable number of immigrants arriving in former years and returned after residence in the United States. In other words, considerably less than one prospective immigrant out of a hundred was debarred from entering. The law, moreover, is practically effective only as against paupers and persons suffering from contagious diseases, and is probably only very partially successful as against contract laborers. It is probable that a very small percentage of the workingmen seeking to enter this country under contract are really debarred, the proportion of persons so debarred being less than one in five hundred immigrants. Moreover, the laws against the admission of assisted immigrants cannot be enforced to any extent, and the laws prohibiting the admission of convicts, anarchists, prostitutes and procurers are practically a dead letter, the cursory nature of the examination rendering them quite ineffective. The entire exclusion of these five classes and of idiots and insane persons amounted in the year 1904 to only 135 persons, or to less than one out of every 6,000 immigrants.

As the law stands at the present time, therefore, it may be stated roughly that we have practically unrestricted immigration, with the important exceptions that the Chinese laborers are not admitted and that persons suffering from obvious contagious diseases and a certain percentage of immigrants likely to become public charges are debarred. With the exception of the Chinese immigration law, however, none of these provisions has any appreciable effect in limiting the number of persons coming into the country. Moreover, the laws are not conceived or administered in the intent to raise the economic standard of the immigrant. The law does not fix a property, income, or educational qualification, does not insist upon the knowledge of a trade, and does not impose a tax, the payment of which might be a rough test of the ability of the immigrant to enter into the industrial world of America. In other words, at the present time we have a more or less effective police regulation of immigration, but we are not pursuing a policy of restriction or limitation.

That the tide of immigration is constantly rising is equally

evident. This immigration, so stupendous in volume and so pregnant of meaning, has mounted steadily as the years advanced, though with great fluctuations due to various economic and political conditions. The movement first became important during the period from 1830 to 1850. Since the latter year there has been no decade that has not witnessed the arrival of at least two million immigrants.

The movement rapidly increased up to the year 1854, when a grand total of 428,000 immigrants arrived. The bad times then ensuing, and the war which broke out between the States, stemmed the immigration and reduced its volume for another decade, so that it was not until the year 1873, at the high point of commercial and industrial expansion, that the volume of immigration again attained the level of 1854. After 1873 it again fell during the long period of depression lasting until 1879, but it rose rapidly again, reaching a new high point in 1882 of 789,000 immigrants. The period from 1880 to 1890 was the greatest single period of immigration until that which began four or five years ago with a great new wave. At the present time the immigration has again risen to still higher levels, reaching in the present year an estimated volume of 1,100,000 immigrants, and it is anticipated that within a very short time our volume of immigration will, if unrestricted, attain a permanent average of almost one million persons per year.

The volume of this immigration has been affected by a variety of circumstances. The number of immigrants has been greater during periods of commercial activity in the United States, and has been less in periods of commercial depression. Immigration has fallen off during war times in this country and has been greatly augmented upon the conclusion of peace. On the contrary, wars and depressions in Europe swell the tale of immigrants and religious persecution and political unquiet increase the number of those who leave their native countries for these shores. In short, whatever makes life more livable in the United States and less livable in Europe increases the immigration, and whatever makes life less livable in the United States and more livable in Europe decreases the immigration. But the movement is onward and upward, and each new ebb of

the tide is succeeded by a flood which reaches an ever higher point.

It is often claimed that this increase in the annual number of immigrants is only apparent, and that in measuring the volume of immigration one should take into consideration not annual arrivals but the proportion which the immigrants coming each year bears to the total existing population of the country. It is claimed that on this basis, while the immigration at the present moment is greater than ever before in the history of the United States, the relative immigration as compared to the existing population is smaller. While in 1905 the immigration amounted to about thirteen persons per thousand, and in 1903 to ten and a half persons per thousand, the percentage in 1882 was fifteen per thousand, and as early as 1854 it was sixteen per thousand. In other words, while at the present time one in every eighty persons in the United States arrived within twelve months from foreign shores, the proportion in 1882 was greater than one in seventy and in 1854 it was almost as great as one in sixty of the entire pouplation, north and south, white and black, free and slave.

This comparison, however, does not clarify the problem, and, to a certain extent, it even obscures it. The capacity of a country to receive new immigrants is not in proportion to the number of persons already in it any more than, to use a halting comparison, the capacity of a pitcher of a certain size to hold more water is directly in proportion to the amount of water already in it.

From the point of view of racial admixture, the relationship between the annual number of arriving immigrants and the size of the resident population of other stock is of importance, but from the point of view of the ability of the country to absorb and conveniently employ the new-comers, the comparison is worse than useless. It would be much more to the point to make a comparison with the amount of wealth in the community, or the territorial area, or the acreage uncultivated, or the amount of free land that could be taken in homesteads. Any of these tests, defective as they all are, would be very much better than a comparison which assumes that the ability of the country to econom-

ically employ new immigrants is directly in proportion to the number of persons already in the country.

The absurdity of this test would be evident if we were to apply it to the migration from the country to the city, or the immigration into the particular wards, streets or houses of a given city, since it seems tacitly to assume that the more densely settled the country is the more opportunity it affords for the admission of immigrants at a constantly increasing rate.

The greatest obstacle to a real solution or even to a fair statement of the problem of the effect of immigration upon the labor conditions is the multitude of naive, obvious and glitteringly false solutions that besets us. I must apologize for seriously discussing these so-called solutions and evasions, but they are so tenacious and long lived that a statement of them is at least indispensable.

It is claimed, for instance, that every mouth that comes into the country brings with it two hands, the assumption being that there is necessarily work for the two hands. It is naively stated that it costs from five hundred dollars to one thousand or more to raise and educate a man from the date of his birth to the period when he will be able to earn his living, and that this sum represents a free gift to the nation to which the immigrant comes.

This, however, also begs the question of the usefulness of the immigrant and the country's need for him. Admitting that we actually need the immigrant in the numbers in which he arrives, that there is work for him and not enough laboring force without him, then it may or may not be economical to have him born and bred at some other nation's expense, but the solution begs the real question as to whether he is needed or is a surplus or waste product.

A still more tenacious fallacy is usually expressed in the statement that we have millions of acres of waste land, and that there is plenty of room in the far West, in the South, or in the country districts generally for hundreds of millions of future immigrants. In other words, the cry is "back to the land" with a population which has come from the land in Europe to reside in the cities of America. The claim that there is plenty of room for the immigrants in the country is made in face of a movement

all over the world from the country to the city. The recurring temporary need of harvest hands for a few months in the year should not blind us to the fact that the really congested portions of the United States, so far as industrial opportunities are concerned, are the lonely prairies of Kansas and Dakota, and not the crowded sections of New York and Chicago. The industrial opportunities, as measured by real annual earnings, are greater in the most crowded parts of our Eastern cities than in many places where there are but a few inhabitants to the square mile. It is obviously disingenuous to argue for unrestricted immigration on the ground that the immigrant can go to the country districts to which they have never been willing to go in the past, and *from* which a tide of internal migration annually flows to the cities, to the very point to which the immigrants themselves go.

The ability of the country to receive unlimited and increasing numbers of immigrants is not a question of production, but one of distribution. If there were no limit except that set by the fertility of the soil and the natural resources of the country, the population of the United States might easily reach hundreds of millions without considerable injury to the now resident population. There is a much closer limit, however, set by the economic structure of society.

We usually approach such problems as immigration with the assumption that we are still living in conditions similar to those of fifty years ago, without a frontier and with boundless areas ready to be taken up. Within the last quarter of a century, however, there has occurred an event which is as of vital importance as was slavery in the Southern States or the Civil War which terminated it. We have struck our frontier. The western wave of migration has reached its limit, and the population has been obliged to recoil upon itself. From now on there will be no outlet for the unemployed and the discontented of our cities. The conditions of life will tend to become more and more similar to those in western Europe. We shall be more and more an industrial nation, and shall rapidly lose our preponderatingly agricultural character. The struggle for life in our large cities

will become more intense and will be carried out upon a more gigantic scale. The evils of unemployment, irregular employment, casual employment, the intensity of labor, the insecurity of labor and the shortening of the trade life will be more and more difficult to combat as the residuum of unemployed but employable men in our large cities increases.

This residuum must necessarily increase with increased immigration. The immigrant must enter American life through a job. It is not his ability to work, but his ability to secure work, that gives him a foothold. And to a large extent he must not only secure a job, but he must take it away from some one else by offering more work for the same sum of money or the same amount of work for a less sum of money.

There are two ways in which the immigrant injuriously affects the conditions of labor. First, by injecting into the labor market a greater amount of labor than that for which there is at the time a remunerative demand, and secondly, by a willingness, at least temporary, to accept a lower wage than that to which the resident worker has been accustomed. Even without the last factor, the more rapid increase of the labor force would tend to depress wages. It needs no adherence to the old wage fund theory to be convinced that a surplus labor force lowers the rate of wages. It is true that the new immigrants, to the extent to which they are employed without replacing others, introduce a new demand for commodities and an increased demand for labor, but this increase is not so great as the increased supply of labor, not so great, in other words, as the proportion which they, the immigrants, bear to the already resident working population. If they did not work for lower wages than the resident workingmen, but competed on absolutely equal and fair terms, the effect would be that a very much larger proportion would starve or would sicken and die of malnutrition, over-crowding, and preventable diseases than at the present time. The fact that by means of their lower standard of living they succeed in displacing resident workers obscures the extent to which their advent means a widespread unemployment, but does not affect the fundamental facts of the case.

The unemployment which exists in our present day society

results largely from our methods of production and distribution, and would to a considerable extent exist without any immigration at all, but it is immensely and acutely aggravated by the fact of this immigration. Some of the unemployment is due to the purely seasonal character of the work and to the fact that it is physically impossible to spread the work over the year. In many trades, however, such as coal mining, the sewing trades, etc., apart from other factors, the main cause of the seasonal unemployment is the readiness with which a supply of labor can be secured at any time. "It is cheaper to store men than coal," was practically the testimony of the anthracite coal operators, and the fact that the manufacturers of ready-made clothing can at any time secure unlimited quantities of low-priced immigrant labor, operates quite as effectively as the rapid change in styles to produce the long hours of labor, the unsteady employment and the general evil conditions in the sweated garment trades.

The wave of immigration sweeping over the boundaries of the United States retards the advance of wages in good times and hastens the lowering of wages in bad times. The law against the importation of contract labor, even if it could be enforced, would be ludicrously inadequate to meet the situation that arises when an increase of wages in the United States calls from the farms of Europe a million of people a year. The fact that large employers can secure an unlimited supply of cheap labor even in good times, and consequently an unduly large share of the benefits of prosperity, enables them to extend their production more rapidly than they would normally do, with the result that the period of prosperity is shortened, and the period of depression is hastened and lengthened. This enormous over-supply of labor, by one of the striking contradictions of modern industrial life, leads to the lengthening of the working day, or, rather, to state it more exactly, prevents the progressive shortening of the working day from proceeding as rapidly as it would otherwise. The more men there are to compete for a job, the longer each will be willing to work, and the greater, in consequence, the competition for the next job.

Moreover, this enormous supply of cheap labor retards the development of machinery by rendering it less imperative to the

employer to save labor. We commonly fail to realize or imagine the enormous mechanical progress which could be made if, by limitation of the labor force, we were able to raise wages. Finally, the enormous suction of labor from Europe, by maintaining wages at a low level, tends to aggravate the present inequalities of wealth and to extend and intensify the commercial depressions and crises which periodically sweep over the land.

I do not wish in this paper to show in detail the character of the competition between the immigrant and the resident for the available jobs of the country. The story of the supplanting of one race by another in the coal mines, in the clothing trade, in the slaughter houses, in the factory towns of New England and elsewhere, is too well known to need repetition. The deterioration of great masses of the former resident population as a result of their displacement, is also known. While a number of the workingmen displaced by immigration tend to rise with the increase in the number of superior positions, the great mass are obliged to accept the lower standard or are forced out of the industry into misery, pauperism and crime.

The inability of the charitable organizations adequately to cope with the situation, indicates the extent to which this process is going on. I do not wish to assume that the opportunities for employment in the country, in other words, the number of available jobs, is a fixed quantity. On the contrary, it is fair to assume that with increased immigration there occurs an increased demand for commodities and an increased demand for labor. This increase, however, is not in proportion to the increased supply of labor which results from immigration.

The unrestricted immigration into the United States has the effect of reducing wages or preventing an increase in wages, both by increasing the number of competitors for the available position and by lowering, at least temporarily, the standard of the men who compete. In a third way, it tends to reduce wages by making it more difficult for the working men, composed of different nationalities, to combine into trade unions in order to enforce their demands. Finally, the greater tendency of immigrants, by reason of their poverty, to permit or encourage the employment of their wives and children, still further increases

the intensity of the competition for employment. This competition is felt primarily in the unskilled trades, but it is also encountered in the skilled trades by forcing a certain number of formerly unskilled workers into the skilled trades. The competition there is rendered more acute, with the result that there is a tendency to a reduction of wages.

To what point can the immigration to this country continue to increase? It is almost impossible to conceive a condition of affairs where a point of saturation would be reached, using saturation in the exact sense in which it is used in physics. A glass of water is saturated with sugar, when it cannot in any way absorb a single additional grain. A condition will never arise where the introduction of a million immigrants will mean the killing off of a million of the resident population — where the industrial opportunities of the United States would be so fixed and so taken up that no new immigrant can be admitted into the system without dropping off some one else. What can happen, however, is that a point may be reached where the advent of any large body of immigrants will mean such a depression of economic conditions, a lowering of wages to such a point, a burden upon our charitable institutions, so large, and a distress so general and acute, that the immigration will not be permitted to take place. There is a point reached in the crowding of tenement houses where the admission of a single additional family, no matter how desirable, will so increase the congestion as to render further living therein unbearable. This point, which it is manifestly impossible to accurately fix, may be roughly called the point of industrial saturation. There is still another point at which immigration could of itself automatically cease, or to express it more exactly, would not be greater in volume than the countervailing emigration. Such a point would be reached when the immigrant meets in America conditions in no way superior to those which he left in his own country, or not sufficiently superior to encourage him to leave his own land. That such a point is being gradually approached seems evident from the change in the starting point of our immigration during the last generation. While the immigration formerly came exclusively from those European countries in which the standard of

living was high, it is now changed to countries in which the standard of living and the rate of wages is low. At the present time the German peasant seeks to improve his condition by going to Berlin instead of New York, the English countryman by going to London instead of Chicago, while the Northern Italian goes to Argentina instead of to the United States. Apparently it no longer pays, speaking in broad terms, the poor of Western Europe to come to the United States, and it is conceivable that with unrestricted immigration a time may come when the rate of wages and the hours of labor, the intensity of work, the irregularity and insecurity of employment, and all the other effects which go to make up the life of the American workingman, will not be sufficiently superior to the conditions of work and life in Italy, Russia, Austria or other countries with low standards of living to induce immigrants from those countries to settle here.

On the other hand, the limitation or restriction of immigration, which would have the primary effect of reducing the volume and the secondary consequence of improving the economic quality of the immigrant, would tend rapidly to cause a rise in wages, a lessening of hours, a strengthening of the trade union movement, and a general improvement in the economic conditions of the workingmen. This it would effect by increasing the demand for labor more rapidly than the supply. This rise of wages would not to any appreciable extent have the effect of reducing the amount of useful work done. To a certain extent, the increasing wages would be offset by more effective utilization of labor, the shorter hours would be counter-balanced by perhaps a greater intensity of work and certainly by a more intelligent direction and economy of labor, and the increased wages would inevitably result in an extension of the use of machinery far beyond anything of which we know at present. There are at the present time many available patents and labor-saving devices which are not utilized because it does not pay to use them.

Notwithstanding all these improvements and economies, however, it is probable that the cost of labor would increase. This cost, however, would not tend to any great extent to reduce operations, but might have the exactly opposite effect of increasing them. Capital, for reasons which cannot here be stated, flows

rather to countries where the wages and standards of living are high than to where they are low. Moreover, the cost of increased wages does not come out of capital, but out of the surplus or rent of the society. Every single immigrant arriving in this country increases the value of the real estate of New York City. The low wages which our unrestricted immigration permits, tends to create a fund which in one form or another is diverted to what may be called the surplus or rent of society. The effect of high wages would be to alleviate to a considerable extent the inequalities in distribution and by extending the increasing consumption of the masses would have the effect of ameliorating the commercial depressions which have now become periodical.

I do not wish in this paper to assume that the question of wages and the conditions of labor is the only one that affects the problem of immigration. I realize the force of the arguments based on sentiment against any closing whatsoever of the door against immigrants, and I realize also the advantages as well as the disadvantages of a composite race and of race mixture generally. It does seem, however, important to point out the fact that despite our greater and ever more improved exploitation of our vast natural resources, the condition of the great mass of the working classes of this country is being permanently depressed by unrestricted immigration as by no other cause, and that the difference between the industrial conditions of the unskilled workers in our country and of other countries is being steadily lessened to our permanent and great detriment.

THE SAVING OF TELEGRAPH HILL.

BY DR. DOROTHEA MOORE, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

Somewhere a strange story is told of the theft, by some hungry and striving ghost, of a living body. And in this body, now hugging himself, now striking wildly at everything in his way, the spirit leaps down the midnight streets of London in a monstrous and insane ecstasy crying out, "Life, life, life!"

Life is indeed a splendid order. And "far better fun than people dream who fall asleep among the chimney stacks and telegraph wires." I suppose that this particular section of this conference means, too, that some of us believe that life can and must be made to be "far better fun" — as Stevenson quaintly phrases it — to more people than it has before. That some way must be devised by which it can mean not warmth and food and shelter alone, but lots of hot water and soap and plenty of room to get dirty enough in to use them; and books and music and pictures and lectures and clean places and spaces and hours in which to experiment with these things. And school-houses turned from grading machines into centers of light and sweetness, and laws to keep them full. And, almost above all, more possibilities for fun, for time and freedom and rest enough to realize that life is a splendid order.

Some quite impossible ideal, if you choose, but that may help to make the eternal whirring of a machine endurable and shall be very unlike packing a pale brown cracker into a pale brown box from seven to five every day.

And when we speak of neighborhood improvement I do not suppose we mean that we have carefully concocted a sociological or psychological recipe for such improvement, but that we carry to certain places more or less contiguous to us a different eye and a different leisure. I do not think I am free to suggest improvements to my Italian neighbor until I have invited him to make his own suggestions concerning my immediate environment — rather expecting he will be as observant as I and far, far more polite, owning, as he does, a language in which one can say everything and hear everything unsaid in one musical word.

Very long ago, in 1859, Telegraph Hill was the spot in the small settlement of San Francisco to which the eyes of the people were most often turned with interest and longing. For there was established the signal station for incoming ships — the ships that brought everything from home — even the laundry which was then sent to China as China had not yet come to it. The signal was a simple wooden affair, with long, moveable arms, whose position told the type of vessel entering the Gate. When Charles Warren Stoddart was a small boy, the spot was just a green hill

far away, where boys went after school to meet exciting red-haired Irish boys who showed one how to make fascinating wampum out of tin cans snatched from the very jaws of the tenanting goat. After that, some well-to-do families — Germans usually — crept up onto the easier slopes and began the quaint gardens which still survive in corners and crest.

To-day not a quarter of a mile from the heart of business, as represented by fashionable shops and the stoniest of banks, historic Kearney street stops abruptly at the base of the ragged hill, which still spreads discursively over thirty-nine city blocks, though for quite fifty years its beautiful eastern bluffs have been cut away. At first, by a comparatively innocent pick and shovel man, who merely saw here providential ballast for his ship, and later on by the employes of a powerful corporate body who, finding the blue stone of the hill superior commercially, quietly built a rock crusher in the middle of an unregarded and friendless city street and for years blasted away city streets and the property of timid and impoverished residents. A small square at the very top and with a glorious outlook over the bay from the Farralones, forty miles at sea, to the long, golden meadows running toward San Jose — given to the city by the Pioneers — was as forgotten as their virtues, bare, dusty and neglected. Fronting the finest bluff and visible to the incomer by water, on a spot even a Neapolitan would envy, was a pretentious wooden "castle," once a beer garden but abandoned to the hardy and daring student of art. One hot noon this burned to the ground, leaving the customary distasteful rubbish.

Irish and Germans had largely moved away to more accessible parts of the city, and up from the wharves and the Latin quarter at its base had crept the Italian. The Spaniard, too, of course, and others, but with the Sanguinetti's, the Naselli's and the Baciagalupi's in the lead. Contented and very saving, they crowded the small wooden houses and the few tall tenements; loving and tending the bits of garden whenever possible and buying land whenever they could. It was easy enough to hide the bigger children from the one elderly policeman, who was the compulsory force of a whole city. And the canneries and factories were just below, in a row. Fitting in with these and the

warehouses and spur tracks was the vicious triangle of the so-called Barbary Coast, and just at the steep descent into the city proper the old Broadway jail, with no sin of old jails omitted and its doors opening upon an alley of all abominations.

Against these forces a few small churches, one dingy and forlorn public square, two miserable school-houses, and one bright, new gift kindergarten, shut up tight and clean every day to all the needs and appeals of a neighborhood essentially social.

Of the inner life of Telegraph Hill I doubt if anyone knows much, unless it be the school teachers and the nurses. And I have noticed that it is difficult to get people who are really *in* things to discuss their *raison d'etre*. They seem to prefer the sounder psychology of the deed. When, however, a certain observant little socialist, a certain district nurse, and the leader of the boys' clubs all agree as to some obvious facts one can at least give this consensus the weight of good second-hand evidence.

The problems of Telegraph Hill are not those of poverty, though of course the poor are there. Rather is it that classic Italian status which has called into existence the Dante Aleghieri society. The very few who represent the flower of modern Italian culture and progress — the many, the mournful many — who clever and commercial, exploit their peasant brother, and the peasant who must be cleverer still in his turn and has discovered that the smaller the room the larger the bank book. Add to this the racial isolation of the elders in a new and very odd country, with no sense of history to unite it to their own, the surprise and shock of the new children, smart, independent and rebellious. Add again an almost absolute municipal neglect and some very real Neapolitan laziness and lying, barely leavened by the later coming Calabrians and Sicilians.

How then was it that Telegraph Hill ever began to be "saved?" Certainly when, in 1899, San Francisco came under the rule of her new charter; when a public spirited and generous mayor and a board of supervisors above gross suspicion were elected and the park board taken out of politics, as the library board had been for years, it was as forlorn and as forgotten as if in another country. Yet, in 1903, a bond of $957,000 for its

permanent redemption to use and beauty was included in the general bond issues submitted to the people and carried by a two-thirds vote of the whole number voting. A decision by the courts that each separate bond voted for must carry a two-thirds vote for itself as a separate proposition lost the election by 336 votes. And, as one woman of the Out-Door Art League said, "I could have got that myself if I had known it was wanted."

Of course this meant a second bond issue, and more or less delay, but deeper than ever Calais was written on the heart of an English queen Telegraph Hill is set in the consciences of such a number of the citizens of San Francisco that they are neither doubtful nor discouraged.

Evidently, therefore, between the first and second bond issues something had occurred. It would be easy to say that the evolution that teaches a Wallace and a Darwin the same truth in the great vast of biology acts as securely in obscure corners of human life, and that the time of Telegraph Hill had come. At least it had its outward beginning and entire first impetus in the person of one small citizen — a woman. The daughter of a pioneer, she was neither a resident of the Hill, a Settlement Worker, nor a charity visitor, but their best fore-runner. One of those true lovers of beauty who can never suffer ultimate defeat because they see the visions and dream the dreams in which self has no part. Myself an unimportant companion of those early visits and appeals to boards of public works, committees of supervisors, superintendents of streets, health officers, merchants' associations, pioneers, etc., I was witness of an inspiring faith and patience.

Soon quite a little band of civic feeling people were infected, and the idea grew. In perhaps an amusingly feminine way, everything that anybody suggested was tried, and everybody that anybody knew was seen. There were brilliant successes and some failures. Just what and how much this little group of fanatics did no one will ever know, and certainly no one will ever acknowledge. But slowly and surely, on account of much importunity of a courteous kind, Telegraph Hill came to public consciousness, and reaped the full benefit of an aroused and

expectant attention. At the risk of being grotesque I should describe the method as a kind of municipal friendly visiting. For its successes came from merely seeing people, armed with ascertained facts, some searching questions and a bold front.

A member of the Board of Public Works was found who was willing to take his Sunday morning walk over the ruins of the hill—out of which grew an expert engineer's plan, with interesting raised maps which could be shown to mere common people, for its restoration to commercial uses and æsthetic beauty. The purely commercial opponents who met the requested injunctions against continued blasting were promised level streets below for the groaning traffic of the water front, and evidence was gotten from the Weather Bureau and Harbor Commissioners to show the havoc to shipping resulting from the removal of the wind break of some millions of tons of clay. One of the Park Commissioners cheerfully recalled the days when he was a pioneer and took an interest in the barren square at the top so that shortly thereafter it was planted by the wisest of Scotch park superintendents with all sorts of flowering shrubs and hardy bushes. Lawyers, too, were discovered who for moderate fees or none went into court to defend the poorer residents against the encroachments of the blasting firms or protected them against the temptations of selling out the community interests for a small sum which looked big to them because it was to be paid monthly. The hill and its fortunes became almost a sort of soup stock for the press; Sunday editions had full page illustrations with what they so naively call "human interest stories," and obliging sailors wandered up from below and fell over the cliffs as if to order.

Long before this, however, some organization of the saving idea had been effected, resulting in an effective committee made up of delegates from the civic clubs of women, the improvement clubs, the merchants' association, the city supervisors, labor unions, camera clubs, the Out Door Art League, the Coast Seamans' Journal, the press, and anybody else who cared to come. Enough money was forthcoming to print many hundreds of circulars of information, for postage, and for the renting of a hall for a mass meeting before the last election for bonds.

Telegraph Hill was not only known — it was notorious. So

that by October, 1903, the following things had happened to it: In answer to the protests of residents and citizens the revocation of all permits for blasting — submitted to the Superior Courts and upheld in law. The closing down of the rock crusher and its removal ordered from its illegal situation in the streets. On July 11th last in anticipation of the delays and dangers incident to a new bond issue the appropriation by the city supervisors of $25,000 for the purchase of certain threatened pieces of land at the base of the hill later to be utilized in a curving drive way to its top, following the plan devised by Mr. Burnham, of Chicago, for the adornment of the whole city. The entire renewal of Washington Square on the western slope of the Hill with a statue of William Penn, a fountain, and trees and tall shrubs. The preliminary steps toward the purchase of a public playground near the street of the Good Children. The gift by a pioneer resident of a model convenience station for the square — and incidentally drums and fifes for the Telhi Boys' Club. The projected purchase of the abandoned Greek church on the square for an enlarged branch of the Public Library. And by no means the least, the active visitation of the probation and school attendance officers and the deputies of the labor commission, all armed with fuller powers under amended laws.

Apart from these larger civic aids were others of a warmer and more directly neighborhood kind. The women of the Outdoor Art League spent a day planting some of the barest slopes, and I do not consider that it really mattered in the least that as Mr. Moran remarked to me, "As them ladies went down them goats kem up."

Heroic souls went about pricing property which oddly enough was prohibitive, and indignation parties became the Saturday afternoon custom.

Now the nurses' settlement there is three years old with its dispensary, its boys' and girls' clubs, its kitchen garden, and other meetings. The Hill has its own Review owned and edited by its own Supervisor; its day nursery for the cannery babies, and most dramatic of all not long ago appeared another awakened pioneer in the first automobile, who turned out to have just the right kind of a ranch among the pine woods of Marin county

for a children's convalescent summer home, equally good for the summer city of the Telhi Boys' Club which is there at this moment trying its first experiment in municipal rule and civil service.

The stranded soldiers rescued from the Barbary coast and sent home, the care of individual cases of need, and the problems of the horde of Porto Ricans settled suddenly on the flanks of the hill ought to be included, though only on the days' work of the Charities Association. This short relation, as obvious, easy going, and unscientific as the Hill itself, seems to tell only of a "saving" by force of arms. It offers nothing upon the severe themes of labor and immigration and it has been for me — at least for me — impossible to discover accurately what the Italian of the Hill is doing for himself. I know that through these events about him he is being placed in conditions of cleanliness and decency in which it is easier for him to "be good," and I do not imagine such a responsive person will long delay to play his own part. He loves his Hill extremely and owns not a little of its area, and when it finally comes up out of its dust and decay he will come too.

A Dante Society has been formed and Signor Tosti in his address to the parent society in New York declares San Francisco the typical place for such work to be done with effective results. A practical woman who for two hours daily teaches some tired children Italian after public school hours under the auspices of the Italian government, says that the most imperative present need is a place for social intercourse, a Clinton Hall, if you please, where a social and courteous people may have these graces exhibited. Where the young people may see their parents respected and where in due time they can be got to listen to educated speakers of their own race, who teaching them something of the glory of Italy may show them something of the promise of democracy and make them — not American Italians, but Italian Americans, leaving them in possession and knowledge of that *vita collotiva* which makes for true love of country.

Quite unlike Signor Tosti who sees — *che uno* — only one thing — the spread everywhere of Italian schools, some of us would like to see the Italian boy and girl get their teaching in the public school — a proper number of hours a week just as he gets his other living languages. He would respect it and himself more.

After all, I am inclined to think that the good priest — Irish — and the good supervisor — Scotch Irish — and the nurses — New England and New York — and the local improvement club — Italian — and the school teachers — mixed — will find the way out.

I suppose that nowhere so little as in a meeting of this kind is it necessary to draw conclusions or point a formal moral. As straightforward a tale as possible has been told of a conspicuous instance of neighborhood improvement, because I somewhat confidently believe that this is the way it must be done in normal American communities. The streets must be kept clean, the public squares made attractive, the children put in school, babies and the sick provided for, and above all the powers that prey must be got off and kept off. Methods will be as occasion serves and need no predication. The will to believe, in a small group, suffices. It may well be the special calling of women's clubs; of improvement associations; of civic federations; or even of leisure members of charity associations, intent to lighten the local burdens of the office. It may be either amateur or professional. The better trained the attempt, the quicker the result, but the essential ultimately is inspiration. It was the persistency, not the stupidity, of St. Simeon Stylites that set his pillar in history.

THE FISHERMEN OF SAN FRANCISCO BAY.

BY HENRY A. FISK, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE PEOPLE'S PLACE, SAN FRANCISCO.

The foreigner in America is no new topic. We all know that he is here and that he continues to come at the rate of about a million a year. The fact of this large foreign element in our population, giving rise, as it does, to many of our social, economic and political problems, justifies us in examining one industrial class, which, though small, is practically composed entirely of foreigners. This class is the fishermen of San Francisco Bay.

Two of the most ancient and primitive occupations of man-

kind are undoubtedly hunting and fishing. Of these, hunting has largely ceased as an occupation and is reserved only for presidential recreation and the relaxation of overtaxed brain-workers. But the fisherman is still here as a factor in the industrial world. The bison and the antelope have practically disappeared from our plains and grizzly bears have become scarce in the face of the strenuous life of our time. Yet while mountains and forest and plain have been stripped of that which made possible the occupation of the hunter, not so the waters of the ocean, lake and river. These still abound with countless millions of the finny tribe, which under government care and supervision will insure the occupation of fishing for ages to come. In times past, this calling was one of the most honorable. It would be hard to estimate how much the world owes to the fisherman. We cannot forget that the first four men chosen to bear the world's greatest message of peace and love and goodwill, were fishermen. This suggests an interesting economic fact. The time was when the fisherman was among the most intelligent and progressive of the industrial class. But whereas, in almost all other branches of industry, the effect of science and art has been felt, and skill and invention have produced great changes, fishing remains as it was. Farming, mining, building and stock-raising now demand a degree of scientific knowledge undreamed of a thousand, or even a hundred years ago. But fishing is still fishing and it takes as little scientific knowledge to be a good fisherman to-day, as it did when the sons of Zebedee plied their trade in the blue waters of Gallilee. As a result, fishermen as a class, have fallen behind the other members of the industrial community in their general average of intelligence and progressiveness. Still the business of fishing is an important factor in the work of the world as well as in the commercial life of our own country. The fishing industries of the United States employ 200,000 persons and the amount of capital invested is about $60,000,000, while the annual value of the product to the fishermen is about $50,000,000. In the state of California there are more than four thousand men engaged in the fishing business with an invested capital of something over

$3,000,000. The yearly output is more than 75,000,000 lbs., and is valued at over two and a half million dollars.

By far the greater part of this industry centers in the city of San Francisco and the waters of the Bay. San Francisco is the premier fish city of the United States. From sea, bay, lake, river, creek and pond, it has a more bountiful supply and a greater variety of fish, than can be found in any other of our cities.

The first fishermen of San Francisco Bay were disappointed gold hunters, who cast their lines into the waters, hoping thereby to replenish their fortunes, for fish were as good as gold in those days. It was not long before some of the dusky skinned fisher-folk from the Mediterranean arrived and fitted themselves out with boats and nets. The disappointed gold hunters had again to seek another occupation, for these newcomers could catch more fish in one day than they could in a month. To-day the fishing industry of the state is almost entirely in the hands of foreigners. Only in one small branch, that of trout fishing, is the American found.

It is an interesting fact to know that the descendants of three of the most ancient civilizations of the world, the Chinese, the Greek and the Roman, furnish practically all the fishermen of San Francisco Bay. Let us look for a moment at the most ancient of these, the Chinese. Stepping into an electric launch, which is an illustration of twentieth century skill, invention and industry, at the foot of Market street, in less than an hour, one may run alongside of a Chinese fishing junk in San Pablo Bay and find himself back in ancient history. Had Rip Van Winkle fallen asleep a thousand years ago in one of the fishing junks of the China Sea, and awakened last week in a Chinese shrimp boat of San Francisco Bay, he would still feel at home. There would be the same triangular sail, the same windlass, the same almond-eyed, long-haired men, with garments as of yore.

In the Chinese fishermen we have an example of as complete a monopoly as is to be found in any trade or occupation. The Chinese are the shrimp fishers of San Francisco Bay, and they have complete control of the business. It is an interesting fact

that here in American territory is carried on a complete monopoly by foreigners (now practically forbidden entrance to this country), and that the product of this industry is nearly all shipped back to the mother country. Even the shells of the shrimps are pressed and sent to China for fertilizing purposes. America may be for Americans, but at the present time China is levying upon us for an important food supply without patronizing American labor for food, clothing or apparatus. Even the nets are made in China, expressly for catching shrimps in California.

While this aspect of the case may not be so serious as some would make out, let us ask if the Chinese when they take our shrimps, take anything else back to China. Very little indeed. This is the phase of the problem with which we are most concerned sociologically. What does America with its civilizing and enlightening influences, do for these foreigners? Probably far less than for any other class that touch our shores. There are special reasons for this. Chinese fishers live in camps or settlements (one can hardly dignify them by the latter term however) at a considerable distance from the centers of population. The principal camp is known as the San Rafael Fishery and is five miles from the nearest town. Consequently, Chinese fishermen do not come even in physical contact with our civilization, and for all socially uplifting purposes, might almost as well be living in China. As they do not possess the ballot, they are not even sought out by the politicians — those self-sacrificing and wonderfully illuminating forces of American civilization.

On the other hand they have very little influence upon the current of American life. Many of them live in the fishing camps year after year without ever leaving them. Once a year there is a financial settlement and most of them go to the city where they are lost in Chinatown and their money spent in the devious ways of the oriental. So far as a spirit of neighborliness or social service is concerned, there is absolutely no effort made to touch these Chinese fishermen. There is not even any missionary activity among them. A deputy fish commissioner visits them yearly to collect the license tax, but otherwise they are left severely alone, except, perhaps, when they may occasionally be arrested for violating the fish laws.

Now let us consider briefly the second class of fishermen, the Greeks. Nestled among the reeds and rushes along the northern shore of San Francisco Bay and in the waters of the lower Sacramento River, may be seen numbers of little house boats, or arks, as they are termed. These are the homes of the sturdy fishermen from Southern Greece. The Greek fisherman has his special characteristics. To begin with, he lives almost exclusively in his ark, which is anchored close in shore, often resting in the mud. This ark is generally from twelve to twenty feet long and from ten to sixteen feet wide. It has several windows and a door at each end and consists of one, or at most, two rooms. For actual cubic space the rooms will compare unfavorably with the tenement house, but for fresh air and sunshine they stand ahead of the brownstone front.

Looking at our Greek fisherman from the social standpoint, we find first that he is a man without a family, — at least he has no family in this country. Not over five or six per cent. of the Greek fishermen are married. He is a good illustration of the fact that the family is the cornerstone of our civilization and of our national life. With his binding ties in the old country, with no family, and living in an ark, he has little real attachment for his adopted country, and no incentive to save the earnings and invest them in a homestead. Two men generally live together in an ark, and are partners in fishing. Few of them speak much English, yet most of them are naturalized, and exercise the franchise. They are for the most part, very illiterate, so read no papers or books.

The general reputation of the Greek fisherman is not good. In the words of a state deputy fish commissioner, "The Greek is a bad egg. He is a natural born thief." The Greeks are nearly all good seamen, many of them having served in the American navy. They combine American tricks and Greek manners and like many crosses, the result is a vicious product. The Greek is extremely clannish. Again quoting the deputy, "He don't like anybody." When he chooses a fishing ground, he does not expect any one else to come that way. Having selected a point along the shore at which to commence fishing, a number of boats begin to put out their nets, one after the other at inter-

vals of from fifteen to twenty minutes and let them float or drift down with the tide or current. The place of starting is called the head of the drift. Here a white rag with blue stripes on it, representing the Greek flag, is stuck up and this means to all the world, especially to the Italian fishermen: "Beware! you trespass in this water at your peril." The Greek fisherman has little respect for law and when one of their number commits a crime even to the murdering of one of his own countrymen, the other Greeks do their utmost to cover up the crime and smuggle the culprit out of the country.

When we ask what are the socializing forces touching this class, we find they are few indeed. They have what is known as the Hellenic Philanthropic Benevolent Society, which renders assistance in sickness or at death, but as a socially uplifting or enlightening force, it counts practically for nothing. The one institution which exercises any elevating influence upon these men is the church and she does so at very long range, and the binding ties are very weak. All of the Greeks belong to the Greek Orthodox Church and confess a more or less binding allegiance to her. For a long time they worshipped at the Russian Greek Church, but recently they sent to Greece and brought out their own priest and built a small church in San Francisco. As most of the fishermen live from twenty-five to one hundred miles from San Francisco, and as the priest never visits them, the influence of this institution is not great. Yet they recognize their financial obligations and observe some of their religious customs and duties, especially at Easter time, with considerable punctiliousness.

The only other socializing influence that touches them is the law. This takes concrete form in the person of a deputy fish commissioner who may drop suddenly down upon them and who always stands at the right end of a gun. The socializing force of the law is rather of a negative quality however, and we find that the Greek fisherman, living his isolated life, with few, if any, neighbors with whom he cares to associate, with no papers or books, with no one to visit him or take an interest in his lot, drags out a lonely and unprofitable existence so far as society is concerned. In fact, though he helps to supply our

tables with fish, we do not know him, we care nothing for him and only think of him when some crime more atrocious than usual calls attention to his existence.

By far the largest class of people engaged in the fishing business in and about the waters of San Francisco Bay are Italians. They are not only the most numerous, but are increasing and gradually driving the other nationalities, except the Chinese, out of the business. The Italians are composed of two classes, the Genoese and the Sicilians. The Genoese are far fewer in numbers but are much more intelligent and higher socially than the Sicilians. They cause little trouble, are reliable, and are the more enterprising and capable in a business way. The two classes mingle freely and often the Genoese is the business agent for the Sicilians. Most of the Sicilian fishermen are located either in San Francisco in what is known as the Latin Quarter at North Beach, or near the head waters of the Bay at a point called Black Diamond, or near the town of Martinez. It will be sufficient for the purpose of this paper to study them at the two points, Black Diamond and North Beach. These two centres afford also an excellent illustration of the difference between city and country environment.

At Black Diamond there is a community of some 2,000 people, which, until quite recently, was made up almost entirely of Sicilian fisherfolk. In the Latin Quarter of San Francisco, there is a similar community. These people, coming from the coasts of Sicily, have been trained to the sea in the Italian navy and have, in most cases, been fishermen before coming to America. Physically, they have great endurance. A Genoese, speaking of the hardihood of the Sicilians, said: "They stay out in their boats all night and frequently for several days. They take a little stew or chowder with them called cinpino, made of lard, onions, garlic, tomato and conserva, seasoned with pepper and salt. At night, or when not fishing, they curl up in the fore part of the boat. They have a skin like a green turtle and never take cold." Up to the coming of the Americans two years ago, there was not enough sickness at Black Diamond to support a doctor.

In the same community, only one man is known as a drunkard. This does not mean that the Sicilians do not drink. Every

Italian drinks wine, and when he goes fishing, his demijohn of sour wine is as much a part of his outfit as his seine or his string of hooks, but he does not get drunk. If on shore, he imbibes too freely, he goes home, or is taken home to sleep it off. He does not gamble, as does the Greek, nor does he spend much time in the saloon. Generally speaking, the Sicilians are thrifty, live within their means, and save money for a rainy day. There are few beggars or loafers among them. They show a humane spirit toward the really needy, and toward the aged. Contrary to the general opinion, they are not a law-breaking class. Life and property are comparatively safe among them. At Black Diamond, there is not even a lawyer. The district attorney does not visit the town once in two years, and the justice of the peace could not make a living, were it not that he is a notary and gets fees for witnessing papers.

They make very good American citizens, yet they show some interesting anomalies of good citizenship. They are loyal to Italy, though as a rule, they take very little interest beyond their immediate environment. Of a broader public spirit or patriotism, they know nothing. Very few of them are naturalized — less than five per cent. being voters. Yet few of them care to return to Italy to live. For literature they care nothing. They have no books, and though L'Italia, which claims to be the largest Italian daily in the United States, with the widest circulation, is published in San Francisco, few of the fishermen take it. The reason is, that like the Greek fishermen, they are decidedly illiterate. Usually, they cannot read or write their own language, much less can they read, write or speak English. They are all Roman Catholics in religion, but aside from the observance of Christmas, Easter and St. Joseph's Day (St. Joseph seems to be the patron saint of the fishermen), religion has no great hold upon them, and the church does not figure very prominently in their lives.

Their social life is very simple. They seem to have few amusements and few gatherings of a genuine social character. There are occasional Sunday picnics and some national fete days, but little else. At Black Diamond, there is a small theatre. One rarely finds a musical instrument of any sort in their homes, and

yet though there is so little music among them, they seem to enjoy it when they have the opportunity. They are a people of strong domestic instincts. When he comes to this country, the Sicilian fisherman first saves enough money to buy a fishing boat and equipment. This takes from five to seven hundred dollars. His second effort, providing he does not live in San Francisco, where land is so high, is to secure a little piece of real estate. Next, if he has a family at home, he purchases tickets and sends for them. If he is single, he marries here. He then borrows money or secures a loan from a lumber company, sufficient to put up a little house. Consequently, at Black Diamond, most of the fishermen live in their own homes. Many of the younger, unmarried men live in arks on the water. In San Francisco, conditions are quite different. Here scarcely any of them own their own homes. Whole families of from five to ten in number, live in tenements of two or three rooms. There are no yards, and the children have no place to play but the street. There is a general condition of dirt and squalor which does not prevail outside of the city. When we visit these simple, almost child-like people in their homes, we at once see where their greatest need lies. The bareness, the general untidiness, and shiftlessness, combined with their genuine hospitality and confiding openness, makes us feel their need for education. Ignorance lies at the bottom of their need.

The women, not knowing how or what to do, spend a great deal of time idly gossiping on the door-steps or in the streets while they trundle a baby or two. They are great visitors, and so congregate in one another's houses and talk and occasionally drink wine. When first approached by a stranger, they may be a little suspicious, but their confidence is easily won. They are quite eager to learn to sew, to read and to write, and are extremely appreciative of whatever is done for them. The great hope for these people lies in their teachableness. The trouble is that they do not know how to lift themselves and no one has yet come to them in a genuine spirit of systematic, brotherly helpfulness.

With the children, the possibilities are even greater. The Sicilians have a numerous offspring, and at Black Diamond,

the children attend the public school more regularly than in San Francisco. The boys, however, soon learn to crawl into the boats, and follow their fathers in the fishing business. In the city, the children are left to go it alone, pretty much as they like, or are early pressed into service as bread-winners. They peddle fish, lemons, matches, or similar commodities, and as soon as they are old enough to earn twenty-five cents a day, they are likely to be sent to work in the factories; or were, until the last legislature passed a child labor law. The girls marry early, often at fourteen or fifteen years of age, and it is easy to imagine, with the training they have had, what kind of mothers they will make.

The Sicilians, thus left largely to themselves, have few socializing forces indeed, at work among them. They take no papers, nor do they patronize the public library because they cannot read. There are no political gatherings, for the men do not vote and the women cannot; there are no labor agitations, for there are no labor unions; there is no interest in public questions of state and national importance because these men are first fishermen, second fishermen, third fishermen and Italians. There is almost no settlement work among them, because no one has yet awakened to the needs and the opportunities of these and similar fields. The strongest and most hopeful influence for the future is the public school. Though it does not reach all the children, it is quietly doing its work, and this is bound to tell on the next generation.

To sum up, the fishermen of San Francisco Bay are a distinctive class in the industrial population. They come from the countries of Southern Europe bordering the Mediterranean Sea, or from the seacoasts of far-off Cathay. The process of transforming them into Americans is slow. Even when they stay here, they are still foreigners. In habits, tongue, dress, customs, they are unchanged. They live very much the same kind of lives as in their native lands. But if these industrious, hardworking people remain foreigners, if they fail to take an interest in our larger life and citizenship, it is not entirely their fault. They are often made to feel the harsh hand of the law through the government officials appointed to care for the fish, while there is no one appointed to bring them the elevating, refining

and enlightening forces of our civilization. Fortunately, many of the rising generation are being reached through the public school, but infinitely more could be accomplished if a more direct effort were made to reach the homes and the lives of these people. If this cannot be done through the state, certainly there is an earnest call resting upon all of us for the exercise of a larger spirit of brotherhood and neighborliness and social interest.

XIII.

Public Dependants.

PUBLIC DEPENDANTS AND THE STATE.

BY SHERMAN C. KINGSLEY, SUPERINTENDENT CHICAGO RELIEF AND AID SOCIETY.

For the purposes of this paper the word "state" is used in its generic sense and will mean the state, the city, the county, or whatever the local unit of government may be. At the outset I must limit this very broad subject. My effort will be to emphasize the need for state interest and intelligence at the point where dependence takes its beginning. I shall speak of dependence in its broad sense and shall have in mind both the individual and families who have fallen below the "level of resistance," and who cannot command the necessaries of life.

At what point in the history of a given case of dependence does the state's interest rightly begin? There is now a fairly uniform opinion as to the best method of care for the various classes of dependants. Probably no community has the equipment it would desire, but at least the leaders in philanthropic work are fairly well agreed as to the proper method, — a colony for epileptics, cottages for the insane, schools with custodial care for the feeble-minded, and sanatoria for the consumptive. We are practically one in approving these methods for our fully completed dependant. We have no such definite opinions or programs for preventive work or for studying the conditions which produce dependence. I believe that the state is interested in the individual, the family, the moment there is inability to procure those things which are necessary to sustain life. Of course, I am speaking of the broad question of poverty and human misfortune. "The preservation of the life of the body is a necessity." "The person who does not possess the means necessary to such preservation is poor."

There are large numbers of people in every community in this condition. The instinct of self-preservation is inherent. The right to live finds universal sanction. Then, without hope of reward, from some source outside the individual's power, help must be forthcoming. I say again that the state at this point is, and by right ought to be, interested. The preservation of life must be effected and the state must either effect this preservation or must be an interested party to the act on behalf of one of its integral parts.

The naturalist studies the bird, the ant, the chipmunk, in the native atmosphere and environment necessary to the life of each. The coffee merchant studies the soil and climatic conditions of the plant which yields the berry in which he is interested. The charity worker, who represents the great, strong arm of the state, the specialists who are in charge of institutions where dependants are kept, need to be linked through definite, intelligent channels with the means of studying the conditions right down on the ground, on a given street, at a given number, in a given flat, in given industries, where the dependant is produced. The state has as great an interest in the processes and the conditions which produce dependence as in the epileptic, the insane person, the victim of tuberculosis, torn from his surroundings in the last stages of disease to go somewhere and die, or the "finished bum." The state is profoundly interested in all these problems. It ought to know, and ought to have organized means of knowing in its own hands, whether effective preventive work is being done.

Those who work among needy families in their homes can hardly touch a case without realizing the need of laying hold of some branch or other of state activity. Probably no movement in modern times has revealed this fact so clearly as the work of the Juvenile Court. This has thrown a new light on public dependence and has revealed the need for the state's interest and action quite beyond the imagination of even the most intelligent observer of a few years ago. I do not wish to push this point too far or try to give any new significance to the term "dependant." But all of these matters have a vital bearing on the subject. In a given case of distress it is manifestly the duty of the state to do one of two things: either to relieve that distress or to know that it

is properly done by some one else. The state, therefore, must in jusice to its subject be either the agent by which the thing is done or it must be the supervisor of the agency which performs the service.

The one principle which stands out above all others in our professions about our work is that "action is based upon knowledge of facts." We profess to do this or do that only after careful investigation, because we understand the situation. Our knowledge is, nevertheless, very incomplete. We do things in a given way because we did them the same way last year or ten years ago. We discontinue relief on the first of May, or the fifteenth. We say that all widows with only two children are to be cut off from the list of recipients on a given day in the spring. So-called "constructive investigations" often result only in satisfying our system, or perhaps in the giving of unleavened advice. There are evidences in every office that we are not living up to the principle "action based upon knowledge." One cannot gauge a policy of relief in a widow's family by looking at the calendar or thermometer. One cannot give a piece of money or red flannel, or codfish and beans, and assume that the problem is solved since the applicant does not come again. In spite of this declaration, "action based upon knowledge," I believe that every city allows the sacrifice of good mothers — women who work themselves to death trying to support their children. Either this, or the children go wrong and enter the broad highway of dependence or delinquency on account of the mother's absence and the necessary lack of nurture and control. We still give niggardly allowances to old couples, even though they may have lived together twenty-five or sixty years, and may have been most excellent soldiers for twenty or forty years in the industrial army. We pursue a niggardly policy in their own homes, or in their declining years we oblige them to be separated in institutions. A serious pronouncement was recently made about the matter of giving pensions to such families; that is, families of two. This was the conclusion:

1. Pensions only justifiable in exceptional cases.

2. The exceptional must include a blameless and very respectable life in the past, with neither vice or extravagance in evidence."

This suggests the subject of "special cases." The cases with blameless lives are easily handled. The special case usually is. We all know, in a general way, what is meant by a special case. It is not necessarily the one the alderman from a given ward is interested in, not the one our president or the chairman of the executive committee sends, nor the one sent by the manager of a benefit or a charity ball. After all, it is the ninety and nine that interest us and that must shape the policy — the average men and women living up and down both sides of the street. Their characters are as diverse as the color of their eyes. Their homely excellences, their self-denial, their patience (have you not marveled at the patience and endurance of the rank and file of these people?) these qualities, I believe the predominant qualities, are nevertheless scarred and ravaged by the marks of suffering, privation, anxiety, error and sin. There they are, at once the result of their own try at life and the product of an existing social order. Even if one could at this time divide the sheep from the goats, he must still do something with the goats.

I stated that the charity worker daily comes in contact with families which open the road to some one or all of the state forms of activity or control. The Chicago Relief and Aid Society has just been making a little study of 500 families. We have in our office a map in which 500 pins have been placed. These mark the residence of the last 500 cases dealt with by this society. We have found that the average number of rooms occupied by these families is three. The average rent was $6.78 per month, the average number of people to a family 4 3-5, the percentage living in basements 14 1-2, the average weekly income at the time of each given application was $2.53. This figure was reached by counting all of the families in which there was, apparently, no income at all. This figure is probably too low, because there was undoubtedly some income in families where none was reported. Taking the average income of families where income was reported, and leaving out all those of no income, the average is about $6.00 per week. This is for all members of the family. One hundred and twenty-one of these 500 families are widows. They are the mothers of 234 children under 14 years of age and of 98 over 14. These women received at the death of their hus-

bands $7,966, an average of $65.83 each, just about the cost of the funeral. With this financial start, they faced the necessity of breaking again into the industrial world and of caring for 234 children under working age. Besides their own efforts, they count more or less upon the help of 98 children above 14. The average weekly income of these women at the time of application was $2.30. Out of the 500 there were 38 deserted women; 71 children were under 14 and 26 over 14. The average income here was $2.06 per week for each family. Nearly every recognized class of public dependants are found in these families. Some of them are fully developed, and others are on the way to full eligibility in one class or another.

In one of these families there are four children under eight. One of them, aged four and one-half is hydrocephalic. The father is intemperate, and deserted about two years ago. The mother is a thoroughly deserving woman, competent, ambitious and devoted. The defective child is entirely helpless, and requires a great deal of the mother's time in the feeding and caring for him. He is often ill. There is no suitable institution where he can be placed. The mother has tried in every way to get along. The most recent venture was in applying to an institution to get a child to care for the children while she was out at work. This she succeeded in doing. She now has in her family a girl of 15. This child was received into an institution in early childhood. She has been placed and replaced, and has had no schooling. She can neither read nor write. I mention this merely as an illustration. The defective child is not eligible to any institution.. The mother has to neglect the other children to care for this one. An able-bodied husband shirks his responsibility with immunity. A private child-caring society aids the mother with a little girl, who has been denied her chance in life. I say the state is interested in every single one of these propositions.

These statistics lead us to the Juvenile Court. This institution has afforded a new light and has given a fresh revelation of the state's intrinsic interest in every citizen, especially its little citizens. The permanent neglect of these obligations is an impossibility. To ignore and overlook the child is to give permanent care to the dependent or delinquent adult. To allow a drunken

man to terrorize his family indefinitely until the children are dwarfed in mind and body is an impossible policy for a community permanently to endure. A certain minimum recognition of this standard is observed in various states in the compulsory education law and the child-labor law, but the state is bound to go further than this. It must either care for those children who become dependent through the faults or misfortunes of parents, or it must have adequate and intelligent means of knowing that those children are properly cared for by some private agency. There is still ignorant and wicked bungling between public officials and private charity in children's work. The city, town or county, gives $25, $50, or $100 to a society and forgets the child. The society, in its turn, drops the child here or there and never takes any further intelligent interest in him. This must become an impossible proceeding.

The little girl spoken of in this family had the misfortune to lose her parents. She was received into this home in early childhood. She remained there until she was fifteen, and could neither read nor write. She was placed in the family of this woman to "help out," a sort of material relief in the form of a child. Up to the present month, in the state of Illinois, there has been no intelligent provision for the oversight of her dependent children. The state has been content to wait and receive, in one form or another, the finished dependant. With those children it has not taken the pains to know what became of them when the pressure at the front door of an institution pushed some other youngster out of the back door. We shall now make a beginning. The last legislature provided for three visitors, who will be attached to the office of the State Board of Charities. It will be their duty to visit and inspect work in behalf of children. Holding parents and guardians responsible for the delinquency and the dependence of children is the greatest advance we have made, and here again the Juvenile Court led the way.

The problem of poverty is age long. The insane, the feeble-minded, the idiotic, and various other dependants, have been with us since the world began. But the study of none of these various classes has opened up such a field of activity as has been revealed through the workings of the Juvenile Court. And the success,

the glory, the promise of this work is that it takes the situation right in the homes of the people. The judge is in daily and earnest contact with father and mother, with the children, with relatives, with the visitor who has been in the homes of the people. He is thus able to encourage, to admonish, to command, in a hundred ways to exert the strong and telling influence of the state. But some one may say, "What has this to do with the dependent?" It is destined, as nothing else has ever done, to cut off the supply of dependants. It is making a connecting link between every institution of the state and the families, the localities that are producing dependants.

No idea is good enough to run by its own inherent excellence. The Juvenile Court has a grist to grind which taxes its capacity. There is present here the usual danger, the necessity of doing things inadequately. There is danger that parents may be able to have legal help in permanently shifting their responsibility. However, to my mind, here is the most promising door through which our people may enter into public service. The appeal for a man or a woman to take an interest in a boy or a girl ought to win if anything can hope to win. Once in the home, interest and sympathy should be aroused. May we not hope to find in this a channel which will help us in this country to work as Dr. Munsterberg can work in Berlin, a public official having the sympathy and service of between three and four thousand friendly visitors. Is it too much to hope and expect that the Juvenile Court will help to usher in this needed phase of work.

Another expressive need is felt when one makes a close study of the conditions in these families — that is, adequate treatment for tuberculosis. An illustration might be taken from three cases that came to my desk one morning: There were three families, one of six children, two of five, all under 14 years of age. In each case the man had tuberculosis. They had all done their last work. The savings were exhausted, the women faced that long, wasting struggle which is the lot of the poor when this dread disease stalks into the home. There are thousands of people in this country going down every year before this unequal struggle. There is absolute need of knowing the conditions. There is imperative need of sanatoria, with good food and good care for those help-

lessly ill. There is even more imperative need of sanatoria where incipient cases may be treated. At the present time the poor are practically doomed if this disease attacks. We are not, either in our institutions or in their homes, adequately caring for such cases. The inevitable result — privation, over exertion, reduced vigor, more victims, the spread of the disease. The state cannot escape responsibility for these conditions. It neglects them to-day only to be doubly taxed to-morrow.

Dr. V. H. Podstata, the superintendent of the Cook County institutions, gives the causes of poverty, as viewed in that institution, as follows: Alcoholism and resulting diseases, 60%; syphilis and venereal diseases, 10%; chronic diseases of various kinds acquired by the individual, 10%; inherited diseases and mal-development, 10%; accidental causes, such as loss of limb, loss of sight, hearing and other misfortunes, 10%.

These causes of dependence, as time goes on, must be better understood and more intelligently dealt with. Such diseases as alcoholism and those of the venereal type work deadly havoc to innocent women and little children. The superintendent above referred to says: "In fighting alcoholism we must, first of all, remember that it is necessary to educate the masses to the thorough realization of the dangers of the habit and the necessity of avoiding its beginning. Secondarily, we must consider the care of persons who have from disease or from habit become chronic indulgents. The extremely detrimental influence exercised by a member of a family chronically addicted to alcoholism is beyond any question. A forcible removal of such a member from the family circle and a care by the state, possibly by the national government, will sooner or later be resorted to."

As regards other diseases, particularly those of the venereal type, the correct education of young people is absolutely imperative. To this purpose the organization of proper clubs among boys, and girls and suitable instruction, would be of very great value.

The worker in private charity has no virtue, no excellence, no superior wisdom which he is not in duty bound to use to the utmost advantage for the improvement of the public service. He

must not allow his zeal for the object of his interest to obscure his vision for the larger interests of the community. Above all, he should be large enough and genuine enough not to allow his own personal interest, expressed in his salary or his job, and the necessity of building up a given organization, to bias his opinion as to this or that policy. During the fiscal year one million immigrants are coming to us; 168,000 of them over fourteen cannot read or write; 500,000 of them had less than fifty dollars on arriving. This means one person added to every eighty already in the country. Over 25,000 for Chicago, and about 50,000 for New York in one year. All of these circumstances, to my mind, point to the inevitable necessity of growing, intelligent action by the state. At the last conference Homer Folks said:

"Believe in your public officials if you can; help them to get the needed appropriations. Send your criticisms directly to them, give them the benefit of the doubt until the truth is fully known. Remember that each and every one of us is in a considerable degree responsible for our public charity administration; first and foremost we are responsible for the particular institutions with which we are connected, and secondly, as citizens, we are responsible in part for the conditions of our public charities. You have more reason to be interested in them than in any of the private charities of your city or town, other than that for which you are directly responsible."

Recently a new city administration was about to remove a fire chief. Developments proved that the change was to make a place for a friend of the executive, not for the good of the cause. All at once fire underwriters, business men, and citizens in general were up in arms. They called on the mayor individually and in crowds, they kept the telephone hot. The biggest business men in town wrote letters, not by dictation, but with pen and ink and on paper bearing the family coat-of-arms. If they had paper that seemed more personal than coat-of-arms, they used that. What happened? Why, just what one might expect. The old chief still holds his job, and new courage thrills in every man on the force.

Fighting fire is an important function. It concerns us all. It is, however, not more important to be ready successfully to

cope with a spectacular emergency of flame and smoke than to provide safe and certain protection, not only to the lives, but to the very souls of little children, not more important than to mercifully care for the suffering and unfortunate and those in the infirmity of declining years. It is possible to have the best men and the best women in this great service. It is only necessary that you and I and the rest of us mean business and demand such service. If that mayor had a good reason for removing that fire chief, why didn't he do it? The action of those people marked the high tide of public demand and the standard moved up.

We are members one of another, and the state is the expression of this fact. More and more our activities must be functioned through the state. We belong to it, we serve it while ability enables us to serve. When misfortune and disability renders us unable to continue this service, then in turn "all of us" should perform for each, though least of all, those services which progressive enlightenment decrees are fitting, humane and adequate to the need.

THE FIRVALE UNION COTTAGE HOMES AND CLASSIFICATION OF PUBLIC DEPENDANTS.

BY MRS. ALICE N. LINCOLN, BOSTON, MASS.

The Firvale Union Cottage Homes afford a unique experiment in regard to the comforts which may be provided for the aged and deserving poor who are dependent. The especial advantages of these Homes were called to my attention several years ago by a member of the London County Council, and it was my privilege to visit them on July 2nd, 1904. I found that much of the progressive policy which has been adopted at the Firvale Union is due to the interest of the Board of Guardians, consisting of twenty-four members, and especially to the Chairman of the Board, Mr. Wilson, who, as an ex-mayor of the city of Sheffield, and brother of a member of Parliament, has naturally much influence, and devotes a great deal of time to the institution and its needs.

Persons entering the Union are classified on entrance by the Relief Officer subject to the Relief Committee of the Board of Guardians. The classification therefore depends upon the conduct and standing of individuals while members of the community, and not upon their conduct as inmates of the institution, although inmates can be changed from one class to another, subsequent to admission. This method of classification on entrance may have certain advantages, because it eliminates the element of jealousy, so likely to arise when one inmate is selected or favored rather than another. It presupposes, however, a large amount of knowledge and discretion on the part of the Relief Officer, and puts a dangerous amount of power into his hands if he is subject (as he would be in this country) to political conditions and pressure.

The Cottage Homes of Sheffield are distinctive, and have one great advantage over other similar buildings elsewhere, in that they form part of, and are connected with the main institution, although actually they are separated from it.

The block consists of eight cottages, built in a row, and resembling a short street of one-story houses. These houses face on a green, and command a fine view. They have separate entrances on the front. On the rear, these one-room cottages open on a corridor, where there are two bathrooms, an exit to the garden, and stairs in the centre, leading to an upper floor where the caretaker and his wife reside. By this arrangement the inmates of the cottages have their privacy secured to them, and yet are under a certain amount of supervision, so necessary for old and feeble people. They can use the corridor for exercise on rainy days, and all the plumbing arrangements are under the observation of an officer, yet the clean, tidy little homes are individual, quite as much as if they were really detached houses. It is partly a segregate and partly a congregate way of living.

Two inmates occupy each cottage, and the rooms are intended for aged couples, two solitary women, or two solitary men, as the case may be. I found examples of each, living in great comfort, (and one very friendly old couple told me they had spent forty years on a house-boat).

Each room or cottage is sufficiently spacious, the dimensions

being 11 x 14 feet, and each has a pretty window facing the green in front of the house. There is an open fire-place in every room, in which a fire was brightly burning, and the inmates make their own tea, and prepare their breakfast and supper on the coal grates. Their dinner is sent from the institution. The furniture of each room consists of single beds for men and women, or a double bed for couples; a table, a pretty bureau, chairs, etc. There is tasteful paper on the walls, curtains are hung at the windows, and a cheerful and homelike air pervades the whole establishment.

The people seem content, and expressed satisfaction. They were distinctly of the class that has seen better days.

The inmates do their own house work, although I understood that some assistance is rendered the old people by workers from the institution. They take care of their own premises, and coal is furnished them, in bins. A garden for vegetables for their use is cultivated by the caretaker, who is also the shoemaker of the institution.

The corridor connecting all the cottages in the rear has a slate floor, and is light and well adapted for exercise.

A statement of the classification of inmates in this Union is appended, and the question naturally arises, whether such a plan could be successfully adopted in America, where class distinctions are less customary than in Europe. Whether or not the "A," "B," "C," "D" classification specified could be possible with us, is doubtful. I can see no reason, however, why cottage almshouses on the Sheffield plan could not be successfully tried in this country. The old people are well looked after—they are happy in their semi-isolation from others, and they are not exposed to the perils of a solitary life. The occupants of the cottages at Sheffield seemed happy and content. It would surely be a distinct gain to make even sixteen inmates of an almshouse satisfied and happy by giving them a semblance of their former individual life and home surroundings, for one of the miseries of people in institutions is that they must consort with uncongenial neighbors, and must eat, sleep, and sit in their company.

Any effort at greater humanity in the treatment of the large class of indoor dependants should be welcomed, and it would seem

as if the experiment at Sheffield might well be repeated in some of our American institutions, where its undoubted expense might be justified by reason of the obvious advantages to be gained.

In closing, I should like to call attention to another very humane provision which I found in several English institutions, and which, I fancy, is common to almost all. Separate day-rooms are provided for both men and women, and inmates are not expected to occupy by night the same rooms in which they have sat all day. Nightgowns are provided for the women, and the bed-clothing is frequently rolled back in a tidy fashion, leaving the beds to air during the day time. In attention to these small details of comfort, the English Guardians of the Poor perhaps excel us in institution management, although in other respects, American methods are often more modern and practical.

One small item, which yet implies a good deal of work, is that at Firvale the clothing of each inmate is numbered, and for the women, consists of two dresses, two aprons, two pairs of stockings, two caps, two petticoats, two pairs of drawers, two chemises, and a woolen shawl. In this respect we again find the individual treatment, the care of the special woman or man, which is frequently lacking in a great institution, and yet which is so greatly valued by the recipient—who has often not resigned his or her independence without a struggle, and who still clings to the sense of respectability which his or her own clothes marked with an individual name or number, gives. One of the saddest thoughts connected with an almshouse, is that each man and woman there has failed through physical, mental or moral disability, to maintain the individual position in the world which is every human being's heritage and right. For this reason, the humane experiment at Sheffield deserves, and should receive, the thoughtful consideration of those among us who are responsible for the care and welfare of public dependants, and especially for the poor in almshouses.

ALICE N. LINCOLN.

CLASSIFICATION.

"A" Class.

Aged and infirm over 60 years of age who have resided in the Sheffield Union (of several parishes, probably) for a period

of not less than 20 years before applying for relief; who have not had relief during that time; whose character will bear the strictest investigation during that time, and who, through no fault of their own, have been unable to provide for old age.

"B" Class.

1. Aged and infirm over 60 years of age who fall short in one or two of the conditions in Class A.

2. Able-bodied widows whose character is very good.

3. Those of any age who are temporarily or permanently infirm, and whose character is very good.

4. Deserted wives, whose character is very good, and whose desertion is not through any fault of their own.

"C" Class.

To include all of whatetver age, and whether able-bodied or not, who are neither of definitely good nor of known bad character.

"D" Class.

All whose character is decidedly bad.

N. B. — Young people likely to learn from, rather than to teach their companions, should be placed too high rather than too low in classifying.

In order that every inmate on arrival at the Workhouse may at once be placed on his or her proper class, the following arrangements have been made, viz.:

When a Workhouse Order is given by a Relieving Officer between the meetings of the Relief Committees, it shall be his duty to mark on the Admission Order the class in which, on the information in his possession at that time, the person admitted should, in his opinion, be placed, and to report to his Committee what he has done. The Committee shall, after careful enquiry and consideration, indicate their decision *re* Classification in the Application and Report Book, and also on the Character Sheet, which later shall be forwarded by the Superintendent of Out-Relief to the Workhouse Master *the same day.**

* The Relieving officers, in making their tentative classification, or the District Committee in revising it, shall only place applicants in Class

HOW THE DIFFERENT CLASSES ARE TREATED.

Class A.

In accordance with the recommendation in the first Report, eight one-room cottages have been built for the accommodation of 16 persons of this class. They are erected on land belonging to the Guardians, facing Smilter Lane, and are known as the Firvale Cottages. A caretaker's house is in the center, and all are connected together by a corridor, useful for exercise in bad weather, whence access is obtained to the bath rooms and other conveniences.

The rooms are about 11 ft. by 14 ft. each, being arranged with comfortable beds and other furniture for the accommodation of two inmates. These rooms are occupied either by a married couple, or by two men or two women as the case may be.

None but Class A persons are admitted to these cottages and such only from that class can be selected as are not by age or infirmity unable to manage for themselves or for one another. As a rule their dinners are cooked in the central kitchen by the Caretaker, but they prepare their other meals themselves.

The old people accommodated in these rooms are quite free to pay visits to or receive visits from their friends, and all privileges referred to in the following paragraphs are granted to them.

It is pleasing to observe how thoroughly the inmates of these cottages appreciate the accommodation provided for them. The cost of their erection was 3,370 pounds, a figure that has caused the Guardians to pause before building others. It should, however, be borne in mind that in case of extension, no additional administrative buildings would be required, as the one Caretaker's house, bathrooms, etc., would suffice for the 24 cottages originally proposed, or, indeed, for any number of cottages that might be decided on.

D if fully satisfied from enquiry or previous knowledge, that they are of decidedly bad character. Whenever the character is doubtful, or there is insufficient information, the class must be C. Similarly, the Work House Master, if ever compelled to admit unclassified cases, shall tentatively class them C, unless he have such specific knowledge of the case as justifies a higher or lower class.

Classes A and B.

(In the almshouse proper.)

Except so far as there is accommodation in the Aged People's Homes referred to, Classes A and B are treated as one. The women of this class are placed in light airy rooms, which were formerly a part of the boys' school, while the men of this class occupy front rooms in the main building.

In both cases the floors of the day rooms are covered with linoleum, comfortable armchairs and curtains to the windows are provided, there are pictures on the walls, ornaments, including a clock are supplied, and the general aspect of the rooms is made as inviting as possible. There is no uniform, but the clothing is warm and suitable for each case. The inmates of this class are also allowed to retain the clothing (after fumigation) in which they enter, if fit for use and they desire it.

Their food is as superior to and distinct from that of the inferior classes as is consistent with the rules of the Local Government Board, and dry tea and sugar is allowed both men and women in addition to the ordinary rations, or tobacco or snuff when desired. The inmates of each room are permitted to prepare tea for themselves. All their meals are taken in the day room, and their sleeping and other accommodation is separate from that of the inferior classes.

It is now decided to allow this class the fullest freedom within the limits of necessary discipline, for them to have ready access to the Workhouse grounds beyond the enclosure reserved specially for their use and to provide them with permanent cards authorizing the porter to permit of their egress and ingress, when they desire to walk beyond the precincts of the House.

They are allowed to retain any pet animal or object to which they have become attached, and which would be a comfort to them, so long as it is not an annoyance to others, and when they are able and desire it, they are to have the opportunity of cultivating a small garden for flowers and vegetables for their own use.

Class C.

This class receives, as far as possible, the ordinary treatment that has been in force in the Workhouse in past years. They

have, however, separate day room and sleeping accommodation from those in the D class, and their clothing also is somewhat superior. They are not under ordinary circumstances entitled to extra diet, or tobacco, or snuff, but the Classification Committee are free to grant such privileges apart from the special conditions imposed in Class D.

Class D.

The accommodation for persons of this class is in every way inferior to the foregoing. They have forms instead of chairs, older and patched clothing suffices, and their wards are at the rear of the Workhouse, and in the "D" Block. No extras in the way of food are provided for them, and tobacco or snuff is only allowed for special or disagreeable services.

It should be noted that the whole of this classification is intended to apply to those who are neither sick nor very infirm. It is necessary that the sick and infirm should be classed more in relation to their physical condition than their character, but where the accommodation provided makes it possible for the Workhouse Master to carry out the character distinctions in the Infirm Wards, it is manifestly desirable that he should do so.

Aged Couples — It would not be right to leave this part of the subject without stating that in relation to each class, provision is made for *Aged Couples* to live together; the position, convenience, and comfort of their rooms varying as described in the foregoing paragraphs. So much misconception exists in reference to the alleged separation of aged married couples that it cannot be too emphatically stated that whenever a man and wife, both over the prescribed age of 60, *desire to live together,* arrangements are made for them to do so unless their physical condition makes treatment in Infirm or Hospital Wards a necessity.

NEEDED LEGISLATION FOR CERTAIN CLASSES OF DEPENDANTS.

BY HARRY MC CORMACK, CHICAGO, ILL.

The necessity for legislation to curtail the increasing army of dependants is growing stronger every day. If the problem is carefully considered we cannot help but conclude that the only solution will be found in laws vigorously enforced.

The healthy dependant is not to be feared. He is generally so through age, accident, or in the case of children, through loss of parents or their neglect. The loafer who will not help himself can be handled successfully if left to the police, and especially so where a municipal lodging house exists. Dependants of this class are not increasing. The defective whose numbers are increasing at an alarming rate is the one to whom we must pay particular attention.

This Conference is holding its thirty-second annual meeting. Many papers have been read year after year on every subject relating to public dependants. The best thought and study have been at work. Not all the labor has been in vain, for much has been effected along the lines of humane and scientific care of the unfortunate. Yet in spite of all this work public dependants of the defective classes have steadily increased in numbers, so that at the present time there are more than ever before.

I have looked over the controversies which have taken place in the Conference upon the best means to eliminate the defectives. The practical method (asexualization) has been mentioned occasionally, but those who did so generally got the worst of the argument. This may have been due to the fact that too much sentiment has been allowed to enter the discussions on this subject. I have tried to avoid sentiment in this paper and give a plain statement of facts as I find them, with my opinions as to what ought to be done.

Nearly every state discriminates between the insane and the feeble-minded as to detention. In the State of Illinois there is no law under which a feeble-minded child or person can be

committed to an institution as in the case of insane persons.

When we know of instances where whole families of children are feeble-minded and numerous cases where two to four children in a family are feeble-minded we feel that something ought to be done to prevent it. In 1904 there were 1240 inmates in the Illinois State Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children and 536 cases in county institutions, making a total of 1776. It is a conservative estimate that six such cases are being cared for by relatives to every one in institutions which would bring the number in Illinois to about 11,000 cases. The number of insane persons in institutions in Illinois for 1904 was 10,677. Everything indicates that insanity is increasing at an alarming rate and the children classified as feeble-minded are furnishing the supply of insane adults.

In Cook County, Illinois, this is shown to a marked degree by the following figures. In the month of January, 1893, with a population of 1,567,727, there were 759 insane persons in the Hospital for the Insane, Cook County, and about 1572 in state institutions, making a total of about 2,331 or one to each 702.69 of the population. In January, 1904, there were 1,919 cases in Cook County Insane Hospital including 47 paroled cases and 2,522 cases in state institutions or a total of 4,441, or one to each 450.5 of the total population, which is estimated at 2,001,030.

It is a significant fact that while insanity has increased the dependent pauper (adult) has decreased. In 1893 (January), when times were good, and during the World's Fair boom, there were 1863 inmates of Cook County Poorhouse or one in each 841.5 of the population. In January, 1905, the total number was only 1,254, or one to each 1,595.75 of the total population.

I give these figures and draw this comparison to show that the dependent pauper so far as Chicago and Cook County is concerned, does not come from among the poor who are in possession of all their mental faculties, but is a product of social diseases, which can only be cured by adequate uniform legislation throughout the United States.

A law limiting the right to wed; restricting marriage to those who are physically fit, is certainly needed. A large per cent. of total blindness is caused through the parents being close

blood relations. Much insanity and many deformities can be traced to the same cause. We have a right to prevent by civil law the violation of the natural law, whether it is broken through ignorance or wilfully. In justice to the unborn child and the next generation we have a right to make laws which will tend to prevent the birth of any imperfect human being.

The feeble-minded, whilst not insane, are not responsible. This class of dependants is increasing. The absence of laws controlling them make us morally responsible for the existence of thousands of poor unfortunate creatures, who if able to realize their condition, would curse the civilization that permitted their being born.

Look at the hundreds of little children growing up to-day — idiots, imbeciles and feeble-minded of all grades. In a superficial way they excite our pity, but there is rarely a thought of who is responsible for their existence. Yet to a great extent the state is responsible, and those of us who realize this condition ought not to hesitate but should speak in no uncertain tone giving the facts, and pointing out the way. Detention is absolutely necessary, especially in the case of females.

I have in mind a case where a married couple with five children have had to place four of them in the Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children. Another case the man, an old soldier, was deficient mentally. He died insane June, 1898. This man was the father of five children. Two of them are in the State Insane Asylum, two are feeble-minded and the other, a girl of seventeen, is nervous and in very poor health.

We know that children are being born every day, deformed, diseased, idiotic and feeble-minded. Who is responsible? This question must be met squarely. There must be no false modesty to interfere with its practical solution.

Canon Wade of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada, in "Everybody's Magazine" of March, 1905, says:

"If the world is growing better, how is it that insanity is increasing everywhere with frightful and alarming velocity? Under the heading 'The World Going Mad,' a Chicago correspondent of the Daily Mail writes:

'Experts declare that one person in every 150 in this city is

insane, and one in every five predisposed to insanity. The increase in lunacy has been very rapid in the last ten years, and more so in Chicago than in any other city.

"Dr. James P. Lynch declares that one-half of the civilized world will be insane 500 years hence under the present condition of things, and that in 2000 years more, most of the Caucasion race will be totally deranged.'"

This may be an exaggeration. Nevertheless there is good reason to arouse the public mind and conscience to a condition that is growing worse.

If the authorities in towns or cities are informed that there exists a case of smallpox within their jurisdiction, they do not rest until it is isolated and detained, using force if necessary. Yet there are at large, all the time, persons who are suffering from loathsome infectious diseases in those same cities, and they are permitted to endanger the public health to an extent that is beyond one's understanding.

Such cases are not (as a rule) able to do hard physical labor. Many of them never get cured, they won't subject themselves to treatment long enough, and in time become dependent.

I have known many of them who have been employed as cooks, waiters, bakers, barbers, cigarmakers, etc. Is not this horrible to contemplate? Ought not steps be taken to protect the public, and at the same time, in mercy to the afflicted, detain them until entirely cured. At the same time it would seem that the expenditure of large sums of money for institutions to care for such, is a waste of money, until the state assumes control with a view to the isolation of these unfortunates, which in certain cases is as necessary as in cases of smallpox.

Syphilis and tuberculosis are two of the diseases I have reference to. I have found on questioning men who were suffering from these afflictions that they handle food in restaurants, bakeries, etc. In one case in particular, that of syphilis, the man informed me that he had slept in three different lodging houses in a week, worked as assistant cook and waiter in a cheap restaurant, and on noting that his hair was close cut and eruptions were plainly to be seen on his head, I questioned him, and in answer to my question, he stated he got his hair cut and

clearing done free at the Barbers' College where they learn pretty even the business. Just imagine what the possibilities are under such conditions.

The awful effects of syphilis where the female is afflicted are not appreciated by the public. If the dire effects of this loathsome disease were known, the great masses would understand it as one of the greatest causes of degeneration and degeneracy.

I have taken the liberty to quote from an article written by Henry Linn Taley, M. D. published in the Journal of American Medical Science, March 14, 1903, as follows:

"The mortality in syphilitic children is so great, if not greater than in any other disease. Syphilis, unfortunately, does not affect a man's procreative powers or his sexual desire, nor does syphilis in the mother interfere with her ability to conceive. History shows that syphilitic women conceive and abort in rapid succession. The chances, however, of a child's escaping infection when the mother is syphilitic and the father healthy are very small, indeed.

Fournier quoted by Morrow, observed 210 cases in private practice, many of whom had been subjected to prolonged treatment before marriage. In these cases there were 413 pregnancies, of which 388 infants survived while 115 either died in utero or a short time after birth. The same observer found that in 87 pregnancies where the mother alone was syphilitic 58 terminated by abortion, still births or marasmic children, while 29 terminated in children who survived—a mortality of 67 per cent. Morrow also gives the Lourcine Hospital statistics which show that in 167 pregnancies co-incident with maternal syphilis 145 terminated fatally, while in 22 only did the child survive—a mortality of nearly 87 per cent. The statistics of La Pitie give 414 births with 298 deaths—a mortality of 72 per cent.

In round numbers Fournier gives a mortality of 68 per cent. in that class which he believes would be increased to at least 90 per cent. had all hospital cases been considered. I quote again: "It is by no means an uncommon occurrence to find one, two, three, four or five or more infants in the same family. When we consider the statistics of Morrow, that

one-third of all children born syphilitic die before they reach the age of six months, those responsible for this symposium need no defense.

To describe the manifold lesions which may develop in a child born syphilitic, is not within the scope of this paper. Suffice it to say that not a tissue nor organ in the body of the little one is exempt. Appreciating then, the insidiousness of the disease, the impossibility of giving a clean bill of health to any child born of syphilitic parents, we believe there is no disease, not excepting tuberculosis which slays so many children. With Morrow we can say: "We may look on syphilis not only as a factor in depopulation, but a cause of degeneration of the race."

In the same magazine Prince A. Morrow, A. M., M. D., of New York City writes upon this question from which I quote the following:

The distinctive features of veneral diseases is * * * that they damage or destroy the function through which life is perpetuated and thus defeat the social aim of marriage — gonorrhea, by its inhibitory influence on the reproductive capacity, and syphilis, by its blighting and destructive effect on the product of conception. The important relations of these diseases with marriage have never been sufficiently appreciated, even by the medical profession. The murderous influence of syphilis on the offspring, often extinguishing in germ the posterity of many families, is well known. Modern science has taught us that gonorrhea is an even more potent factor of depopulation than syphilis.

The office of social hygiene is not simply to protect the existing population from disease; it embraces in its objects the welfare of the descendants, those who are destined to continue the race. This protective duty extends to the unborn children, who should not be deprived of their birthright of vitality and physical vigor. Now the law requires that every infectious disease, dangerous to the public health, shall be reported to the health officials. These diseases are protected by their privacy, their secrecy, their shameful character, from notification. Isola-

tion of the great army of venereals is not practicable nor indeed is it necessary.

Dr. Chas. E. Sceleth, Home Physician, Chicago House of Correction in the annual report issued by that institution says:

Some writer has said that we should be careful in selecting our ancestors. One-half of the present misery and sickness is due to hereditary taints. While we have not much to say in the choice of our ancestors, we could protect future generations and give the baby a constitution free from hereditary taint and the world a race relatively free from epileptics, insane and degenerates. Take these cases, and with them incurable alcoholics, confirmed criminals, old incurable syphilitics, tubercular cases, certain forms of paralysis and nervous diseases and with a simple operation we could put them in a class from which no offspring could be possible. This would stop untold misery and do more to empty jails, hospitals, county farms and poor houses than all other benevolent schemes for the benefit of mankind.

Every one will agree with Dr. Morrow, that it would not be practicable to isolate all cases, but I do contend that when any such become a public charge the authorities should have the right to isolate and detain those who, in their opinion, are a menace to the public.

Such cases ought to be isolated until cured. As quoted by the State Board of Health of Illinois, "What we would have done for these cases, is the right thing at the right time until they are well; not the wrong thing at the wrong time until they are dead." Every state should enact a law, carrying a penalty for violation against both employer and employe, compelling all persons employed as cigar makers, barbers, bakers, cooks, waiters, and any other employment where articles of food are handled, to carry a license which would be equivalent to a clean bill of health; and that to obtain such license they must submit to a rigid physical examination; that no afflicted person be given a license who is suffering from a disease which might be dangerous to the public.

The more the baleful conditions and tendencies are kept before the public the more hope there will be for improvement.

Those who are continually reminding a thoughtless community of their short-comings are, as a rule, in bad odor. They are termed trouble-makers, but experience has shown that it is through such that the public are aroused and sometimes shamed into interesting themselves in movements tending to better general conditions.

Whatever the remedy let us do something. Any solution is better than none. Knowing well the experience of Dr. Sceleth, I have no hesitation in agreeing with him and also with others who favor strict isolation.

An army of homeless non-residents, many of them physically or mentally defective, is on the move continually. Some of them are afflicted with loathsome diseases, and are a menace to the public. They are never allowed to remain in one place long enough to obtain a legal residence. It pays to send them on to the next city or town. An endeavor has been made by Cook County, Ill., to minimize this evil, by making an earnest effort to trace the legal residence of such and send them there. It has been found, however, that on account of other communities failing to adopt like measures, Cook County has to assume the care of all such who are forwarded to Chicago, and when no legal residence was established to give permanent care. This is an injustice, and the situation would certainly justify Cook County in doing the same as others, i. e., send them on. Legislation is certainly needed in this direction. At present, there is none between states and within the states themselves very little that is of utility.

Every State Board of Charities ought to take this question up with the counties and other municipalities within its boundairies. All non-residents should be reported to such state boards, and a report filed similar to that used by the U. S. Dept. of Immigration. The state should decide the legal residence, and whenever cases were found which belonged to other states, the state board should take the case up with the state concerned. The different town and county corporations, if properly systematized, through uniform legislation, could perfect an organization which would settle the non-resident and tramp question in a

very short time. The practice of sending them on to the next county would cease.

The subject of municipal homes for women in large cities ought to receive the attention of all at this Conference. Municipal lodging houses for men have demonstrated their great need. In Chicago the system carried out by Mr. Raymond Robbins has impressed everybody with its usefulness. Both the police department and county department of relief in Chicago agree upon this subject. Thousands of homeless men have been able to obtain lodging, food and employment through this agency, which is practically a clearing house for homeless men.

There is a great need for a similar institution for women. Space will not permit the writer to go into the many reasons why this should be done, but experience of six years in the Relief Department of Cook County, with an average of fifty-thousand applications per year, covering homeless men, deserted women and children, the sick, insane, hungry, unemployed, crippled, etc., — in fact all of the different classes of our poor, has left the firm conviction that this is absolutely necessary from every conceivable standpoint and as a matter of justice to American women.

XIV.

State Supervision and Administration.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION.

MISS JULIA C. LATHROP, CHAIRMAN.

This subject has been discussed so frequently and so thoroughly in the meetings of this conference that it seems impossible to make any useful contribution at present to the consideration of those more obvious aspects having to do with the varying methods of technical administration now existing in different states.

The committee has, therefore, made a short excursion into the uninteresting, though safe, region of undisputed truths and begs to present without undue solemnity certain basal propositions and to draw some illustrations from recent foreign literature.

In the first place, there is no finer conception in the world as it is, than that of a system of public charities. Such a system sets aside the egotistical Oriental sanction for charity and replaces the almoner's personal effort "to acquire merit" by the state's solemn acknowledgment of its responsibility for its feeblest member. Instead of the capricious gifts of individuals, we have the unfailing reservoirs of the commonwealth; instead of the uncertainty of individual interest we have, in theory at least, the unflagging devotion of the state to a great humanitarian service accepted by it as a necessary function of government.

The system being assumed, it is self-evident that the state is to bestow humane care upon immediate beneficiaries and that at the same time it must carry on intelligent preventive efforts, otherwise the humane care will soon fail; for humane care, let us remember, has a steadily rising standard. The inevitable cost is so heavy that the state must employ effective economical methods of business, and lastly it is plain that, in a democratic country, there must be public intelligence concerning public humanitarian

work and public confidence in its value if it is to have a wholesome development.

Any consideration of the immediate beneficiaries of public care compels us to face the fact of the continual increase in their numbers. Our institutions grow because our general population grows, even if the ratio of dependants to normal population does not increase. Again, our institutions increase because new classes of dependants are being recognized as entitled to public care. The tuberculous and epileptic, crippled and deformed children, are being accepted as public wards — the newer legislation for children places great responsibility upon the state, both in actual care and in supervision, and the state laws as to dependency and delinquency, school attendance and labor, form a complicated and interdependent whole affecting enormous numbers of children.

It is a conservative estimate to set the number of recognized insane in public institutions at 150,000, and the yearly permanent increment at not less than 5,000. Perhaps some day the unconscious progress of society or the swift genius of a man of science will make obsolete some of the diseases for whose results we now provide. And, as leprosy became obsolete in Europe and Europe turned her 1,600 lazarettos to other uses, in some cases to sheltering the insane, so we may be able to abandon, for instance, our asylums for the insane; but to-day we see no immediate prospect save that of actual increase of public dependants.

Unfortunately it is fifteen years since we have had a federal census covering public dependency. We anticipate with interest the data which the new bureau will undoubtedly furnish hereafter, yet we do not need such material in order to feel the growing magnitude of this subject. We feel, too, that the neglect of preventive effort in connection with immediate care is no less than foolhardy. It is as if a city were to abandon vaccination and content itself with an admirable isolation hospital in which to treat all discovered cases of smallpox.

The cost of merely maintaining public charities, without the cost of research and preventive effort, is so great that there are now and again panic-stricken reductions, which cripple the service and render research impossible. The cry of *per capita* is a shibboleth which has too often reduced our institutions to the level of

public custodial boarding houses. It is then doubly necessary that the expenditures for public charities should be managed with the greatest prudence and skill, because, large as they are, they will hardly fail to increase for years to come. It is not the purpose of this report to undertake to distinguish the most effective method of financial management. We doubt if an infallible rule or one universally applicable has been discovered. Examples of excellent administration can be shown in various states and abroad under very different systems, and applied to states of different requirements.

We desire rather to remind ourselves of the great proportions of this problem and to point out that it plainly demands the life-long service of public officials of the highest skill and devotion, and we wish to illustrate by some foreign examples methods of securing such service, which, we believe, should be universally adopted here.

We shall justify ourselves on several grounds in considering for our illustrations chiefly one branch of public charities — the care of the insane:

1. Because the insane are everywhere the most numerous, and their care the most costly among public dependants. As Mr. Sanborn has said, no disease pauperizes as does insanity.

2. Because trained service and preventive study are so palpably necessary in the care of the insane.

3. Because there is excellent material at hand indicating a genuine renaissance of interest abroad in the care of the insane, a revival which we trust will be felt here among the laity, because the situation must be met by the laity in large degree.

4. Because whatever is true of the character of service required for the insane is true, in the main, for the whole field of charity.

Let us consider briefly the care of the insane in Scotland; it forms a suggestive instance because the conditions of life approximate our own, and because the numbers under care are not so different from those in our larger states. Thus January 1, 1904, there were 14,362 free patients. Not only these patients, but the 2,532 pay and private patients, are under the effective protection and supervision of the Lunacy Commission and, on account of the

completeness of supervision of the individual patient, the high hospital standard and the success of the village care — which applies to about 20% of all the Scotch insane — it is frequently said that the Scotch system is the best in the world.

It is not without interest to recall that the present excellence of the Scotch system may be credited, in some degree, to an American citizen. The Parliamentary Inquiry, which resulted in the present organization in 1857, was due to the visit of a Massachusetts woman, Dorothea Dix, two years earlier. She called attention to the neglect of pauper patients in certain asylums, with the result first of the inquiry and then of the law creating the Scotch Lunacy Commission. This commission consists of five men. The chairman, and two others who are lawyers by custom, are unsalaried; the two salaried members are physicians, the tenure is permanent, with pension on retirement for age at 66 years. The commission has also a paid secretary and two deputy commissioners who are salaried, in addition to suitable office force. Its duties are purely supervisory, and the institutions are left under local boards of unpaid trustees, to manage their own individual matters. The commission has the power, which it has never been obliged to exercise, to provide for the insane in any county if the county fails to do so.

This commission was the active force in putting into order the chaos which it found when it came into office fifty years ago. It is needless to say that there was much governmental and public interest at the time the law went into effect, and the appointments to the commission were made with great care. The two paid commissioners who would do the heaviest work were chosen as experts — one, Dr. W. A. F. Browne, a recognized authority in mental diseases, an author and the best superintendent in Scotland; the other Dr. James Coxe, a physician of high standing, who had been a member of the Parliamentary Commission of Inquiry and as such had given the special subject careful study. Later appointments have been equally careful. Dr. Arthur Mitchell was made a deputy, and later became a commissioner, serving until he was retired for age. It was he who organized the family care of the insane so as to give it the completeness and

effectiveness which are now well recognized the world over. He was knighted for his services.

Sir John Sibbald, whose recent death is mourned by friends in this conference as well as abroad, was first a staff physician in one of the Scotch asylums, then he went to Germany to study under the most distinguished alienist of his day, Griesinger. He was next made superintendent of the Argyle Asylum. Some years later, he became a deputy commissioner, and, after several years as deputy, he succeeded Sir James Coxe as commissioner and held that office for twenty-one years, until his retirement for age in 1899.

The lesson of the Scotch care is not at all that the material surroundings of all the patients are superior to ours. On the contrary, there are doubtless in the United States, hospitals — though not many — as well constructed as Gartloch, as well nursed and free from restraint as Stirling and others; yet the admirable cottage life is probably below the American standard of comfort; and the wards of the various poor-houses in which nearly 1,700 patients are retained, present at least a sentimental objection to our minds; although in many of our states a larger proportion of patients are cared for in poor-houses, under conditions less uniformly wholesome than the Scotch.

The Scotch care is important to us in this connection, for the progress it has made from the irresponsible neglect of the 50's, not for its actual achievements by the commission. We see the result of fifty years of steady, patient work done by men of highly specialized education and experience. This work was only possible because they were undisturbed by any of the changes and threats of change in the commission or in the institutions which keep the personnel of too many of our boards and of our institutions shifting like a kaleidoscope or at least quaking like a jelly.

Again the Scotch commission has succeeded, because it knew its business, because it was composed of men whose acquirements were respected by the superintendents of the institutions, but above all because it was part of a system recognized as sacred to humanity and science, as above political manipulation.

We are by no means clear that the system is technically perfect or universally applicable as a device. It works well, not

because it has paid officers or because it has volunteer officers, not because the commission exercises only advisory powers, but for the deeper reasons we have mentioned, which are of universal applicability.

Notwithstanding the old boast, "We order things better in France," the French people are curiously open to suggestions from abroad and curiously free from the pseudo-patriotic pride which declines to learn from the experience of other nations. When the over-burdened asylums of the Department of the Seine compelled some plan of relief, a governmental commission was sent abroad to study the various methods of boarding-out insane, and on the basis of that commission's report the successful village colonies at Dun-see-Auron and at Aimay were instituted some years ago. Of more immediate interest to us is a report of monumental character published by the French Republic in 1903, dealing with the care of the insane in Germany, France, Italy and Switzerland. This report was written by Dr. Paul Serieux, physician — superintendent of the asylum of Ville Evard, one of the public asylums of France. It is based upon the visits of two official delegations. The first, in 1901, was sent to the "asylums of the east of France and to the asylums for the insane, the university clinics in psychiatry and the quarters for the criminal insane in the west of Germany." The second visited "the insane asylums, the establishments for criminal insane, and the university clinics in psychiatary of Switzerland and of northern Italy."

Both delegations were composed chiefly of laymen, men engaged in the official service of the insane, while the editor of the report was a physician. The purpose of these inquiries was to improve the administration of the public care of the insane in France, and the report discusses the needs of that service with the candor of men of science and with the directness of men of affairs. It is plain that the delegations were not making holiday. The magnitude of the work done shows for itself. Nor were they making a report to gratify national pride, but rather they were trying to glean knowledge to improve a national function of recognized importance.

In parallel columns are set down the asylums of Germany and of France, and the inferiority of the French medical service

in point of numbers and method is plainly shown. The attendants in the French asylums, it is stated, are too few; they are underpaid and their personnel "leaves something to be desired." The teaching of the care of the insane in the universities of the countries visited is described at length, and the report states that such teaching is, in the opinion of the delegates, a matter "of capital importance," but unfortunately "almost unknown in France" until of late. After enumerating other details of modern hospital equipment which are lacking in the French asylums, the report says: "We confess it is not without a feeling of humiliation that one visits these asylums for the insane after having seen the admirable hospitals on the other side of the Rhine." Concerning the inadequate medical service, the report quotes an author, Maxime du Camp, who wrote twenty-five years ago and whose words are reproduced because they are as true in France now as when written. "Listen to the patients," said Du Camp; "they have a familiar word, an invariable phrase which they teach us; they say, 'The doctor is going through,' 'The doctor will be going through.' He does go through indeed, and can hardly do anything else, because he has not leisure to stop. There are not enough doctors, and there are too many patients."

The report sets out the accepted standards of adequate medical service, of which it so frankly shows that France falls short, but it is not our purpose to go into such detail, but rather to show the spirit of the administrative officials who are responsible for this report. Nor have we desired to point out similarities to American conditions. Those who are familiar with average American asylums will read for themselves the lesson of this remarkable public document. It may be permitted to quote a few lines which point the duty of the laity and remind us of the difficulties in the way of the physician. "Actually the (French) physician-superintendents are controlled, blamed or praised, from the point of view solely of their business success. No one disturbs himself about the things that they do or that they ought to do from the medical point of view. Economy and again economy, that is all that is demanded." "However," says the report, in closing this chapter, "A wind of reform has finally arisen, which will sweep away the triple alliance of routine, of optimism and of

indifference." A shrewd analysis of the forces which destroy institution progress.

Let us look at the German university system of teaching the care of the insane, which the French delegates commend so highly. There are in Germany twenty state universities, some of world-wide reputation, others almost unknown to Western readers. Each one has a medical faculty, and each one a clinic in psychiatry. Here is the list and the dates of their establishment of such clinics, and the very dates are significant: Jena, 1848; Wurzberg, 1848; Erlangen, 1850; Munich, 1861; (the new hospital for this clinic is the subject of a recent consular report, the author indicating that this remarkable method of a city's care of its acute insane should be known in the United States.) Berlin, 1865; Göttingen, 1866; Strasburg, 1872; Morburg, 1877; Breslau, 1877; Heidelberg, 1878; Halle, 1879; Bonn, 1882; Leipzig, 1882; Freiburg, 1887; Greifswald, 1889; Königsberg, 1892; Tübingen, 1894; Giessen, 1896; Rostock, 1896; Kiel, 1901.

The French report says of these hospitals: "Every faculty of medicine of the twenty German universities has been obliged, as we see, to secure the teaching of mental diseases by the creation of a special clinic. But an important distinction should be made between the autonomous clinics in psychiatry (university hospitals), thirteen in number, which have been created since 1878, and the provincial asylums utilized for teaching in psychiatry. Two very distinct periods are to be distinguished in the development of such teaching in the German universities, the one before and the other after the memorable labors of Griesinger. In the first period they were content to utilize for clinical teaching the provincial asylums for the insane or the wards of an almshouse already existing which were to be found situated at a considerable distance from the university city. In the second period, which began twenty-five years ago with the creation of the clinic at Heidelberg (1878), it was decided to build university clinics, autonomous establishments, constituting small city asylums of a hundred beds. Such are the clinics of Leipzig (1882), Strasburg (1886), Halle (1891), Wurzburg (1893), Tübingen (1894), Giessen (1896). It is in great part due to the creation of these autonomous univer-

sity clinics that the brilliant progress of contemporaneous German psychiatry is due."

It is perhaps time that we stopped to ask precisely what the clinic in psychiatry is, and why words of such remote technical sound are of interest to us.

The university clinic in psychiatry, at its best, is a small, suitably equipped hospital for the insane, serving also the purpose of a hospital for acute cases in the city in which it is situated. It is maintained by the university, is directed by the head of the department of mental diseases, and is used for instruction of medical students. It has about three times as many nurses as the best asylums average, and the patients enjoy the most advanced medical care. In all the German hospitals and in those of Switzerland and Italy as well, a six months' course in the study of insanity is required and a student cannot obtain his degree without undergoing a special examination, which includes the clinical examination of patients. The most distinguished alienists are in charge of these hospitals. Kraepelin, at Heidelberg, need only be mentioned to indicate that the greatest specialists in Germany are not too great to be enlisted in the service of the state. Candidates for government physicians must serve as internes in the public asylums, and no physician is allowed to have charge of a private asylum who has not served two years as interne in a public asylum, while a dozen years of apprenticeship are usually necessary before a man can attain a superintendency. His superintendency reached, his position is permanent during good service. Thus the state obtains its servants by training them, and keeps them by the reward not of great salaries but of permanent positions and opportunities for scientific work.

It may be stated in passing that no American school of medicine has such facilities, and none makes such requirements as does every one of the German universities. In some schools in this country instruction on the subject of insanity is not given, in others it is an optional subject and, until the University of Michigan opens the doors of its still unused psychopathic hospital, it must be confessed that no medical school in America attempts to carry on a hospital for the instruction of students in mental diseases.

At this point shall we digress still further and elucidate one of the undisputed truths to which we made reference in beginning this report, by pointing out the importance to the general public of proper teaching of this subject and its relation to adequate administration:

1. The general practitioner in the United States has entered upon his profession frequently never having seen a case of insanity. Whoever has had the duty of glancing over the statements of the physicians sent with patients to asylums knows the ignorance which is apparent to the veriest lay tyro. Now this general practitioner — as medical authorities have frequently pointed out — is the only person who can, as a rule, do any service in preventing the development of insanity in the individual. He it is who knows a household familiarly, to whom would be apparent, had he been given the training by which he could recognize them, the threatening signs of mental disturbance. It is in the highest degree important to the public here, as on the continent, that the general practitioner should know something of mental disease and therefore in a broad and true sense it becomes an essential detail in adequately supervising public charity to secure this knowledge for the medical student.

2. Again it may be said that such hospitals used for teaching, superintended as they are in Germany by the greatest alienists, are in themselves the last word which has been spoken in the immediate care of the insane and that if instituted in our cities the sufferings and unnecessary hardships of many poor patients would be greatly lessened and the number of recoveries much increased; but these considerations tempt us away from our main purpose, which is to point out that the German teaching is really basal in the whole management of the insane; that its excellence is recognized by the scientific world, and that the American students who go there to study go to obtain what America cannot afford.

We do not wish to consider the detail of installing the German system in America; some modifications would be necessary, because comparatively few of our medical schools are attached to state universities, but it can be done.

We may quote in this connection comment showing the

importance attached by the French report to these clinical hospitals for the insane in Germany. It says: "It is important to note what considerable sacrifices are made by the German universities in favor of their clinics in mental diseases. The University of Giessen is one of the smallest in Germany — 149 medical students (at the time of the report). It is in a small state, the grand duchy of Hesse, whose population scarcely exceeds 1,200,000, and in a small city of 20,000. Neverthless, they have not drawn back from the enormous expenditure of more than a million francs to create a model clinic. One can only deplore to see our provincial universities so little disposed to follow that example. In Germany ten autonomous clinics in psychiatry have been created, at great cost, in as many universities since 1878. In France we can only show the establishment of the clinic for mental diseases at Paris in 1879."

Dr. Kraepelin, at the head of the clinic at Heidelberg, and as we need not say a man of international reputation, in a work entitled "The Duties of the State From the Point of View of Psychiatry," concludes a list of duties thus: "The state ought to create in all universities autonomous clinics having no other object than the teaching of insanity."

The same recognition of the necessity of special training for the care of the insane is seen in the methods of the Italian and Swiss universities, which also furnish clinical hospitals and require at least six months' study of insanity.

We have dwelt upon this subject at length, partly because, as we said in the beginning, it presents the most important problems in the administration of public charities and partly because, whatever can be shown of the need of special training, of high ability, of life-long devotion in this branch of service, illustrates what is the approaching standard in the whole business of public charities. One suggestion before we leave it: there is a great task — greater in our country than elsewhere, for obvious reasons — which must be performed by the laity in the care of the insane, and we beg to commend to this Conference the reinstatement of the Committee on Insanity to consider the duties of the state and of the laity. An editorial in the *Journal of the American Medical Association,* after pointing out the lack of facilities for teach-

ing the care of the insane, concludes: "The increase of insanity has become so marked, and the expense of caring for its victims is so heavy a burden in every state, that the necessity for some preventive measures is becoming evident even to the lay mind. Such preventive measures must be directed to the care of incipient and acute cases, and for this we need numerous and well-equipped psychopathic hospitals and numerous and well-equipped alienists among our general practitioners. For the first we must look to the general public, whose co-operation is absolutely essential for the foundation of such public and private institutions. For the second we must look to the medical schools, for it is largely through a radical change in the old-fashioned and inadequate methods of teaching this subject that we may hope to lessen the waste of life and cost to the state caused by insanity."

Thus it appears that the time is ripe for a renewed attention to this subject on the part of the laity not to usurp the place of physicians, but to support and encourage their efforts and to create that public opinion which is the necessary basis of public action.

The point of interest in studying the French attitude toward public care of the insane is not the actual situation of the insane in France. It is strangely like our own, from the lack of a sufficient number of physicians and an adequate nursing service, to the demand for "business administration" by those who are unconscious of the lines of true economy in humanitarian affairs. It is the fearlessness of the French self-criticism, the candor of her recognition of a superior service, even if it be in the land of her dearest foe, her humble willingness to study wherever there is anything to be learned. This state of the official mind it is which must interest and inspire us.

The respect for science, the patient teaching, the life-long public work of the best specialists in Germany, the freedom from political interference which alone gives men of science opportunity to do their work, and to give themselves to the public service, these are noteworthy features of the German attitude, not only toward the care of the insane but toward public charitable work in general.

But if Europe seems remote there is one state in our own country to which we may look, if not for the high standard of

Germany or the humility of France, at least for a notable degree of public interest. The sustained excellence of the Massachusetts management of public charities is due to her sustained public interest. No other state with large charitable activities can show a better history, and certainly no other state can show a longer roster of persons of distinguished ability devoting themselves to humanitarian effort. It is perhaps a relief to turn from the almost chill perfection of Massachusetts to an instance showing more of the warmth of human struggle. You will not be surprised that we find such an example in Chicago. The Cook County Insane Asylum offers an instance of an institution recently lifted from neglect and inefficiency to the highest standard by the power of public opinion. The case is specially apposite to our argument, because the public interest was not directed toward changes in business management — no charges of fraud or dishonesty were brought — no effort was made to change the financial methods, which are well organized and carried on by the paid Board of County Commissioners. It was to create a spirit of humanity and of science and to apply it to the daily lives of the patients that effort was directed. This asylum has become one of the best conducted in the world on the medical and nursing side and in business administration. The moving force in securing this fundamental improvement was an aroused public attention, which insisted suddenly on knowing about the institution and next demanded, and at once obtained, a better service. It should be added that a controlling majority of the managing board heartily co-operated in the changes which revolutionized the asylum and demonstrated afresh that official boards in this country must have the backing and stimulus of intelligent public opinion.

A word as to the larger duties of state supervision of private charities. The old mortmain is long departed. It cost a struggle to loose its relentless grasp. Now, by a strange turn of affairs the state is again facing a duty the very reverse of the one it performed when the law of mortmain was abrogated. It is a public duty to see that the generous will of the dead is kept vital and effective; that bequests are administered in spirit as well as in letter. The English Charity Commission, created in 1853, has the power to require statements and accounts of endowments and,

within narrow limits, to alter the use of ineffective foundations. England has always accompanied "grants in aid" by rigid public inspection and careful standardizing. As we grow older we are finding need of the same precautions in this country. New York's admirable law of 1896 recognizes this necessity, and the last report of the Massachusetts Board of Charities asks for authority to supervise private charitable institutions and societies.

The supervision of children in private institutions and in the care of private societies and of those placed out by such societies is highly important, as are the more direct duties of factory inspectors and of the care of neglected or wayward children through the still experimental system of probation officers. Is it not plain that, as the public service thus widens year by year, it more and more necessitates highly skilled and devoted public servants? And is it not plain also that any permanently successful plan of supervision and administration must combine paid experts and volunteer service so as to preserve the routine service from the dry rot of custom, on the one hand, and so as to keep alive and vigorous the sense of public responsibilty. It may be done in various ways. There is a fine sense of public duty in the German system of "honor offices," which a man may not refuse without risk of disenfranchisement, and there is a record of splendid effectiveness for the English Local Government Board, with its salaried secretaries, supervising the work of the unpaid poor law guardians of all England. It is the spirit, not the technique, which is of basal importance. The prayer to renew a right spirit within us is one for continuous use, and not for emergencies.

Finally, we enumerate briefly as the great essentials of state supervision and administration as they appear to us:

1. Absolute independence of that exploitation which we know as "political influence" on the one hand, and on the other hand strict accountability to the proper state authorities.

2. The enlistment of the finest trained ability in the public service.

3. A sustained intelligent public interest.

WHAT HAS THE PUBLIC A RIGHT TO KNOW ABOUT PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CHARITIES, AND HOW SHALL IT LEARN ABOUT THEM.

MISS FRANCES GREELY CURTIS, MEMBER MASSACHUSETTS STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

I think that I have been asked to answer this question because in Massachusetts, and especially in the State Board of Charity, we believe that the public should have the fullest knowledge of all the public charitable institutions, while many of us believe that the same publicity should be given to the work of the private societies also.

With us there are the state institutions, publicly supported and managed by boards of trustees, appointed by the governor; and there are the private societies, which are privately supported and managed, although indirectly helped by the state, in being exempt from taxation. There are no public subsidies to private societies.

The public learns to feel an interest and responsibility in its own public institutions when it is made to hear about them, and at the same time, for the institution, publicity prevents mismanagement and waste, ensures better methods and enlightened care, and for the inmates secures freedom from actual abuse and cruelty.

The public charitable institutions of Massachusetts, such as the Hospital for Consumptives, State Farm and Hospital, Reform Schools (not to speak of the Insane Asylums and School for Feeble-Minded, which are visited by the Board of Insanity) are each managed by a board of trustees, men and women, who report annually to the governor and legislature.

They are also visited and reported on by the Board of Charity, who frequently make suggestions and hold conferences with the various boards of trustees, when matters are settled that are more properly dealt with in that manner.

The board also visits and reports on the city and town almshouses, which are managed by the local overseers of the poor and the county truant schools in charge of the county commissioners.

The advantages of friendly suggestion and criticism, and the helpfulness of wise visiting, are too well recognized to need special notice here.

The respect that has always been paid to the reports and suggestions of the advisory Board of Railroad Commissioners in Massachusetts is a parallel case, testifying to the appreciation of the advantages of purely supervisory direction.

So much for the public institutions; the private, incorporated societies, privately supported, as I have said, report also annually to the State Board of Charity, giving a financial statement of income and expenditures and invested funds, with lists of officers and number of beneficiaries, and these statements are published in the annual report of the board to the legislature.

Any body of persons desiring to do so can incorporate themselves by applying to the Secretary of the Commonwealth, but those intending to do work for children are referred by the secretary to the Board of Charity before permission to incorporate is granted.

It would seem that to be visited by the Board of Charity was logically the next step to reporting to them, and many societies and institutions have asked that such visiting should be required.

The measure, which has been presented more than once, has been lost however, owing to opposition which has seemed mainly due to misunderstanding.

For we do believe that the public has not merely a right to know the way in which the unfortunate members of its own great family are being cared for, but has also the duty to learn it, and that this knowledge can best be gained by the trained, sympathetic *visiting* and *reporting* of the Board of Charity.

XV.

Training for Social Workers

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORKERS.

BY GRAHAM TAYLOR, CHAIRMAN.

The spontaneity of nature's provision for the needs of life characterizes and accounts for the rise of the specialized educational efforts to train for philanthropic and social service. It is the most noteworthy fact in this first record of their progress submitted to the Conference, upon which to comment. Like everything vital they are agencies which life has developed to perpetuate, economize, conserve and increase its own energy. On both its practical and academic side this development has been wholly natural, if not inevitable, at just this stage of the evolution of philanthropy. Decision committees and friendly visitors' conferences, consultations of institutional staffs, residents' meetings in social settlements became more and more definitely educational in exchanging values by the rehearsal of experiences of success or failure. The association of charitable and reformatory workers in child-saving conferences, professional clubs, city and state organizations became educational clearing houses for the interchange of information, suggestion and fellowship across institutional boundaries. This Conference has grown into a great summer school which has more and more grouped the charities and corrections of the nation within its charming personal fellowships and about its inspiring programs, while its published proceedings furnish the most authoritative text-books we have upon the whole range of charitable and correctional practice and theory.

Meanwhile simultaneously, the Universities, Colleges, Theological Seminaries and other professional schools, notably at Harvard, Columbia, the Universities of Wisconsin and Michigan, the

University of Chicago, Wellesley, Vassar, and Simmons College for Women had been developing courses and departments of instruction in social theory and practice. To meet this demand text-books began to appear. Some religious bodies and Chautauqua Circles had introduced reading courses on social ethics and service to wide popular use. Training schools for nurses had raised the occupation of the trained nurse to the dignity, discipline and esprit de corps of a profession. The success of these unacademic but none the less effective educational agencies, and of the academic but not wholly unpractical effort, suggested something to supplement and develop, but nothing to substitute for, their respective schoolings. The educational advantages, which although purely incidental to the practical office or field work of charity organization societies and other institutions, had been enough to train up a corps of experts, suggested themselves as indispensable in their laboratory and clinical values. The historical, comparative, scientific and philosophical research and instruction of the academic type were recognized by the field workers to be equally necessary to the success of their work. These two natural sources of supply and strength, with spontaneity as happy as it was remarkable, joined forces to furnish the most highly specialized and therefore most practical training for philanthropic, industrial and social service.

Training schools thus arose not only simultaneously, but under remarkably similar conditions. The Charity Organization Society of the City of New York was first in the field with its Summer School of Philanthropy which for eight years has succeeded in attracting and inspiring students by its unique observational methods. Shortly after this initiative, Miss Helen Gladstone started a winter course of social training at the Woman's University Settlement in London. Although very quietly and unpretentiously managed and announced, its graduates are already to be found in some of the most influential and responsible positions in the metropolitan and provincial cities of Great Britain. In 1903-4 announcement was made of the establishment in London at the initiative of Mr. C. S. Loch and the Charity Organisation Society of a "School of Sociology and Social Economics." The same year the New York Charity

Organization Society supplemented its summer school by winter courses arranged chiefly for charity workers employed during the day. Encouraged by the demand for training, the existence of which was demonstrated by such partial advantages as had been offered, the "New York School of Philanthropy" was opened the same year with a curriculum extending through eight autumn and winter months and including a full rounded course of training, with many lines of specialized study. Its cooperative relations with Columbia University have been developed by the creation of a chair of Social Economy at the University, avowedly to supplement the endowment and curriculum of the school. In 1904 also there successively arose "The School for Social Workers" in Boston, under the joint administration of Harvard University and Simmons College for Women; "The Institute of Social Science and Arts," established in connection with University College of the University of Chicago; "The School for Practical Training of Charity Workers" in St. Louis; and "The School of Training for Social Work," inaugurated by the University of Liverpool, England. There have thus grown up within two years six training schools, four in America and two in England, with a total attendance of about one hundred and fifty students.

The problems confronting these initial efforts and the ways in which they are being met, stand in the forefront of the reports received from all the schools. First among them is the question, how far can the practical and academic methods and constituencies of these schools be correlated effectively for fulfilling their purpose? How real a problem this is may be indicated by the citations from letters written by members of the committee to the chairman. Mr. Philip W. Ayres of Concord, New Hampshire, writes:

"I do not think it expedient for our universities to train men and women for philanthropic work. Great as the influence of the universities is in turning young men and women into this field, they only prepare, but do not train. For any branch of philanthropic work, whether among the poor in their homes, or in institutions, one needs for a long period the close intimate touch that comes from and with people who are rich in ex-

perience, and this can be had only in the societies and institutions (institutions in the broadest sense). If perchance a training school for philanthropic workers is supported by a University, it seems to me that there is danger, even if its teaching force is chosen from practical workers, that its courses will become either very general and therefore academic, or else dogmatic; and in order to place the unfortunate in a better way of living without having the new worker gain his experience at their expense, we must have more than generalities; and there is no room at all for dogmatism."

Professor Charles H. Cooley of the University of Michigan pleads for both the best general and special training possible in these words:

"In my opinion a university training in theoretical and applied sociology is valuable to the professional worker chiefly in giving him sound general principles, a broad view of the various problems and of their relation to each other, and an acquaintance with the best literature. These are evidently of the utmost importance and I find that their practical value is recognized by all intelligent opinions. I recognize, however, that the special schools of philanthropy now organizing in some of the great cities can add much that is of value to the student's training, and I recommend a short post-graduate course in such a school whenever feasible. I suggest that the committee in its report urge upon the Conference the importance to all social workers of a broad training in the universities and special schools; that it throw as much light as possible on the actual or probable demand for trained workers and that it consider what may be done to increase the efficiency of bureaus of information, such as that established by charities in New York."

In tendering his munificent gift yielding $10,000 per year to the Charity Organization Society of New York for the endowment of The New York School of Philanthropy, Mr. John S. Kennedy wrote:

"I obtained an act of incorporation for the 'United Charities,' and erected the building which is now known by that name, in the hope of securing thereby greater co-operation and more effective work among the important charitable agencies of

New York, many of which are now located in the building. My expectations have been fully realized, and with their realization on the side of more efficient work has come a demand, not only in the City of New York, but throughout the country at large, for trained charity helpers. There is the same need for knowledge and experience in relieving the complex disabilities of poverty that there is in relieving mere ailments of the body, and the same process of evolution that has brought into our hospital service the trained physician and the trained nurse increasingly calls for the trained charity worker.

I have noticed with increasing interest the efforts in this direction of the School of Philanthropy, conducted for the past seven years in the United Charities Building by the Charity Organization Society, which, in its inception, was solely a summer vacaton school, but in its present form constitutes a full year's course, and I have, after careful consideration, decided to provide the means for establishing this school on a permanent basis, if the proposition contained in this letter proves to be acceptable to your society. I would wish to have Columbia University affiliated with this committee, as it is with the society, by constituting the president of the University for the time being, or some person delegated by him for that purpose, an ex-officio member of this committee. I should also wish to emphasize the relation of this school to the United Charities and to the philanthropic work of the city by constituting as ex-officio members of the committee the Presidents for the time being of the United Charities, of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, of the United Hebrew Charities, and of the Particular Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul. I have also considered the possible desirability of establishing the school as a department of some university, but have decided it should preferably be connected directly with the practical charity work of the city, in analogy to training schools for nurses which are connected with the hospitals rather than to any separate university department. I should hope it would affiliate its work, however, not only with Columbia University, but with other educational institutions, and I have sought by naming as

ex-officio members of the committee the presidents for the time being of the more important societies dealing directly with the poor, not only to associate them in the direction of the school, but to emphasize my desire that this school shall give a training in the practice of that broad charity which is free from any limitations of creed or nationality."

So long as there is actually a joint control of these schools by practical and academic experts, even though the former have only advisory relations to their management, and so long as the schools must depend for their training upon the experts actually at work in the specialties on the field, the danger of becoming doctrinaire is far less than the manifest gain both to the universities and to all lines of practical work in the alliance of the academic spirit and scientific method with the laboratory practice and the human touch.

The rise of training classes in state institutions, especially in those for the care of the defective, and the inclusion of their employes under civil service laws in some states raises the question of the relation of these schools to the institutional service of county, city and state. The state of Minnesota recognizes the need of educational advantages for those responsible for its institutions to the extent of providing for the expense of their attendance upon the State Conference of Charities. The University of Wisconsin offers special work in its department of domestic economy bearing directly upon service in public institutions. Efforts have also been initiated in Illinois to enable the state university to provide facilities for training those who would enter the service of the state institutions; and also to offer those already employed in them such advantages at the university as "teachers' institutes" offer those who could get leave of absence to attend them, and to open extension courses at some of the institutions for the benefit of those employes whose training can be supplemented only in this way. The first of the extension courses offered by the New York School of Philanthropy was given for the benefit of the graduating class of the Nurses' Training School of the New York City Hospital at the Nurses' School on Blackwell's Island. The Michigan Asylums for the Insane are reported to be in close touch with the medical

department of the state university, which furnishes them with some of their assistants. But no such effective co-operation exists anywhere in America as between the medical department of German universities and the public asylums for the insane. The special schools for training social workers can render no public service so great as to open the way for direct effort to broaden and increase the efficiency of all grades of employment in public institutions.

One of the problems of the curriculum in each one of the schools is to test the present demand for training by the practical purpose involved in the instruction offered. The first response to the courses offered at some of the large centers has come from the employed staffs of private and public institutions. While this fact accentuates a permanent claim upon the schools to provide facilities for increasing the efficiency of the force at work, yet the schools already see that these students are neither numerous enough to constitute the main source of supply, nor free enough to meet the standard of exaction which the schools must maintain to be educationally effective. So the curriculum is gradually being adjusted to the full time and strength of those who can devote themselves wholly to the work of preparing to serve either professionally or as volunteers. Provision is, however, made not only for the admission of the hard worked members of institutional staffs, but special inducements are offered to enable them to take what they can get of the advantages of the schools. Experience on the field is placed on a par with academic qualifications required in others. Single courses on topics allied to their professional needs are open to their election, where others are expected to take the full curriculum. Boards of managers and superintendents are granting both the time and expense involved in the attendance of their employes upon such courses. Yet the problem still remains of how to offer such training as will create the demand for it among such as are able to profit most by at least a year's full course.

The permanent employment and living salaries surely opening to trained persons are urged as justification thus to prepare for a legitimate profession. A correspondent in one of the central western states writes that while "in filling positions in public

institutions there is little or no recognition of the value of a general philanthropic training, yet the work the universities are doing, should bear fruit in creating a demand for a higher class of trained workers." Another writes from the East: "Thus far the indications are that the demand for trained workers scarcely needs stimulating. The demand very greatly exceeds the supply. So far as city departments and state institutions are concerned, it will seem natural that trained students will succeed in the civil service examinations and will be appointed so far as they are willing to present themselves." This latter view of the excess of the demand over the supply is certainly the fact at western centers, especially with respect to the number of well trained men and women available for head residents in settlements, the leadership of boys' and girls' clubs, probation officers in the Juvenile Courts, shop secretaryships for administering employers' betterment enterprises, and assistants to manage the developing social agencies in church work.

The duty of boards of managers to prepare themselves for their responsibilities is urged. Their appreciation of training for themselves is sure to enhance their valuation of trained helpers.

How to maintain the highest standards of both academic and practical efficiency in the instruction and training of such schools, and to exact the requirements for admission and graduation necessary thereto, is the problem involving more than any other the future of this movement for specialized education. The warning of one of the most experienced and discreet members of the committee deserves all the emphasis which this report can give and circulate. Miss Mary E. Richmond writes:

"Looking to the future rather than to the past, the question connected with training schools that immediately suggests itself is whether it is wise to encourage the organization of such schools in all our large cities. I am inclined myself to think that this is unwise. If six such schools were adequately endowed to-morrow, I fear that at least four of them would be very poor concerns for a good while to come, the chief element in the school after all being the personality and experience of the teachers. The supply of these comes slowly, and the multiplication of schools under second grade leadership, turning out

half-baked workers, is a danger that we have to face. We know how the medical profession has suffered from it. Perhaps there is no possibility of our escape, but in so far as the National Conference can influence the situation, I feel inclined to urge the Conference to encourage students to go to the school rather than to have the school come to the student. A few good centers are going to do more good, I think, to the cause of charity and social reform than a large number of centers with programs and courses chiefly on paper. I am not writing this apropos of anything that has already been done. Perhaps I am unduly alarmed about what may happen in the near future."

For this service of maintaining a high standard of practical efficiency the common cause must look to this Conference more than to any other source of help, because it has always combined in its membership and management representatives of the most thorough academic discipline and of the most practical insight that wide experience and observation can acquire.

If therefore a committee of this Conference could be continued and so constituted that it would commend itself as a valuable advisory auxiliary to these schools, — its annual reports here rendered, based upon the year's visitation of and correspondence with each of them would, by its faithful and constructive criticism and its oversight of the whole field afford perhaps a sufficient safeguard and incentive for the highest practical efficiency.

XVI.

Working Men's Insurance and Old Age Pensions.

SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON WORKING MEN'S INSURANCE AND OLD AGE PENSIONS.

PRELIMINARY REPORT BY FREDERICK L. HOFFMAN, ON THE GERMAN SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT INSURANCE.

As a member of the committee on compulsory insurance in Germany, I have to report as follows, for the second year preliminary to the final report, to be made at the meeting of the Conference in 1906. Partly for want of time, partly because the necessary information cannot be obtained, the report which follows falls materially short of a comprehensive study of the finances of the government insurance system of the German Empire.

The financial statistics of the government insurance system of Germany are contained in the "Nachweisung der Geschafts- und Rechnungsergebnisse," which are published annually and of which the last issue that has been made available to me is dated December 30, 1901, and January 8, 1902, being for the financial year 1900. All statistics of general business operations are contained in the Statistical Year Book of the German Empire for 1903, and in the appendix to "Einrichtung und Wirkung der Deutschen Arbeiterversicherung," prepared for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, supplementary to the exhibit made by the Imperial Insurance Office in the Palace of Education and Social Economy. Most of the information, however, ends with the year 1901, but some of the information, as to accident and invalidity insurance, is brought down to 1902.

It is shown by the summary that of the total expenses of the government insurance system almost one-half, or to be accurate, 44.6%, have been contributed by the employers, 43% have been contributed by the employees, 4.5% through direct State aid, and 8.2% have been derived from interest and other sources. The aggregate cost to 1901, inclusive, was somewhat over $1,100,000,000. Of the outgo 90.4% has been paid to beneficiaries and 9.6% has been expended for management. There remained on hand at the end of 1901 $309,000,000 of accumulated funds.

It is brought out by the tables on another page that a large part of the burden of the government insurance system falls upon the employers of labor, or German industrial enterprises. To the end of 1901 this burden has been somewhat over $500,000,000, or about 45% of the total cost of the undertaking. In the sickness branch 29% of the cost is paid by employers, in the accident branch 88%, and in the invalid and pension branch 38%. For a more intelligent understanding let us consider the returns for a single year.

THE COST OF GOVERNMENT INSURANCE TO GERMAN INDUSTRY.

Sickness Branch (1901)	$13,958,000
Accident Branch (1902)	29,920,000
Pension Branch (1902)	16,546,000
Total	$60,424,000

As shown by this table, the cost of government insurance to German industry during the year 1901-1902 was $60,424,000. From whatever point of view the subject is considered, there seems to be no escape from the conclusion that this annual payment by the employers of labor for the insurance protection of their employees is a direct tax upon industry, which must be met either by a resulting improvement in the health of employees and a higher degree of industrial efficiency, or by factory economies generally, or by a direct deduction from wages, since in international competition, especially with the United States, the industries of other countries are not subject to this expense.

I cannot at this time go into the economic aspects of the problem, but obviously the propaganda for the extension of government insurance to other countries, and especially to the United States, finds its explanation in the fact just stated, that the tax upon German industry as the result of this system must needs act as a tremendous handicap to the extension of German trade to other countries, and especially the United States. This fact would seem to explain why such elaborate exhibits of the system of German government insurance should have been made at Chicago in 1893, and at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at the present time. It is readily conceded that the cost of this system is a tax upon production and as long as other nations have not this burden to carry, the German efforts to extend their trade must needs be handicapped by a burden which is not placed upon the American manufacturer. In defense of the German system it is argued, and with much truth, especially as to the accident branch that "As these casualties are necessarily incident to the undertaking, the compensation for injuries should be regarded as a part of the cost of production, and it is on this principle that the accident law was passed, by which the entire cost of this branch of the system was placed upon the employer." That the burden to the employer is quite considerable is made evident by one instance, for illustration, in which it was proven that the cost of the system of government insurance amounted to as much as 5½% of the total amount paid in wages. Of this 3% was on account of the accident insurance, 1½% on account of the sickness insurance, and 1% on account of the pension system. It has properly been pointed out by the president of one of the branches of the invalid pension scheme that, "It has often been pointed out that industries in other countries have an advantage over our own, in that they can operate without this insurance tax, to say nothing of the many branches for which we have to pay excessively high rates of insurance, and this is true to such an extent that our home industries not infrequently have in other places to meet this degree of unfair competition. It is argued that German energy and intelligence will after all, prove victorious, but it would seem as though in certain branches

of our industries the tax was gradually proving too much of a burden, making competition impossible."

One of the arguments in defense of the system is that through the sanitary and other life-saving precautions adopted by the government, the accident and sickness liability of the workingmen would be materially reduced as the result of this system of government insurance. I find by the official tabulation that this has, apparently, not been the case. The general accident liability per 1,000 insured was 4.0 during 1886-1900, against 6.2 for 1901. The number of fatal accidents per 1,000 insured was 0.40 during 1886-1900, against 0.44 during 1901. In other words, the mortality resulting from accidents was higher during 1901 than during the preceeding period of years. In contrast, however, the ratio of workmen permanently incapacitated as the result of accidents was decreased from 0.13 during 1886-1900 to 0.08 during 1901. This reduction has been gradual, from 0.48 during 1886, to 0.14 during 1893, and 0.06 during 1898. During the last three years the rate has been somewhat higher. It would thus appear that there has been a definite reduction in the proportion of workingmen permanently incapacitated. In marked contrast to this result, however, stands the fact that the proportion of workmen partly incapacitated has increased from 2.10 per 1,000 during 1886-1900 to 2.88 during 1901, and the proportion of those temporarily incapacitated as the result of accidental injury has exactly doubled, having been 1.4 per 1,000 during 1886-1900, against 2.8 during 1901. The gradual increase in the ratio of temporary injuries to workingmen as the result of accidents is extremely significant. The rate was 0.56 in 1886, 1.20 in 1894, 2.41 in 1900, and 2.75 in 1901. It seems to me that the evidence is not conclusive to prove that as the result of the system of workingmen's insurance the mortality of workingmen and hygienic conditions of employment have materially improved.

As I have already pointed out, I have not been able to go as extensively into the subject as I intended to, but the difficulties of a comprehensive investigation are very great. I hope during the coming year to have a better opportunity and I shall make every effort to obtain a more complete statement of the facts in the case.

SUMMARY STATEMENT OF GOVERNMENT INSURANCE IN GERMANY.

	MEMBERSHIP.
Sickness Branch (1901)	10,319,564
Accident Branch (1902)	17,582,000
Invalid and Pension Branch (1902)	13,380,600

This table is evidence that the original idea of a compulsory insurance system for the entire male population is in a fair way of being realized, and to-day the large majority of workingmen in different industries and trades are under government insurance protection. It is shown by this table that the accident branch is most general, and, as the writer understands it, mostly widely appreciated. The sickness branch has not as yet been developed to the extent of the accident branch, nor is it probable that this will be done in the near future. The tendency appears rather to be toward a further extension of the invalidity and pension branch, which, as the writer understands, is not in general favor with the population insured. The existing antagonism to any form of deferred annuities is, however, so general on the part of the wage-earners that this opposition in Germany may rest upon other grounds than objections to the practical workings or results of the scheme. A study of the government insurance of England brings out the same fact, that there is a strong disinclination on the part of workingmen to provide for old age by means of deferred annuities.

In marked contrast to the elaborate and detailed reports required from private insurance companies, the German Government has given but the most meager and unsatisfactory data to the public regarding the finances of the compulsory system of workingmen's insurance. Only aggregate results have been published, and it is extremely doubtful whether all the items and factors which enter into the operation of the system have been properly accounted for. Thus the most important item of the expense of administration, returned under the title "Gesamtverwaltung," may not include, and probably does not include, a large amount of administrative expenses included in other items of the general budget of the Empire. There are readily understood

reasons why this should be the case without there being any deliberate attempt to understate the cost of administration. For illustration, in the administration of the Post Office insurance system of Great Britain, it is utterly impossible to return accurately the expenses of administration, since a large portion of the necessary labor is performed by persons compensated for other services through the General Post Office. It, of course, is possible that a more detailed report of the finances is published than has come to the notice of the writer, and it is more than probable that a study of the debates in the Reichstag would throw much light upon this part of the subject, but so comprehensive a study of the subject cannot be carried on at a distance and would require a stay of some length in the capital of the German Empire, where, no doubt, a mass of information is available which does not find its way across the ocean.

The following is a summary statement of the income, outgo and capital of the entire system, including the three separate branches for the period 1885-1901.

INCOME AND EXPENSE ACCOUNT OF THE COMPULSORY SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT INSURANCE, 1885–1901.

	Totals: Sickness Accident Invalidism	
Income:		
From Employers	$508,649,000	44.6%
From Employees	487,342,000	42.7%
State Aid	51,070,300	4.5%
Interest and Other Sources	93,625,500	8.2%
Total	$1,140,686,800	100.0%
Outgo:		
Compensations	$755,317,800	90.4%
Expense of Management	80,025,700	9.6%
Total	$835,343,500	100.0%
Accumulated Funds	$309,143,900	

The following table gives the corresponding information for the sickness branch only.

INCOME AND EXPENSE ACCOUNT OF THE COMPULSORY SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT INSURANCE. 1885–1901.

SICKNESS INSURANCE.

Income:		
From Employers	$146,997,500	28.7%
From Employees	342,100,600	66.7%
Interest and Other Sources	23,816,800	4.6%
Total	$512,914,900	100.0%
Outgo:		
Compensations	$444,739,200	94.2%
Expense of Management	27,537,100	5.8%
Total	$472,276,300	100.0%
Accumulated Funds	$44,439,300	

The following table gives the corresponding information for the accident branch only.

INCOME AND EXPENSE ACCOUNT OF THE COMPULSORY SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT INSURANCE. 1885–1901.

ACCIDENT INSURANCE.

Income:		
From Employers	$216,410 100	88.3%
Interest and Other Sources	28,650,500	11.7%
Total	$245,060,600	100.0%
Outgo:		
Compensations	$167,715,200	83.2%
Expenses of Management	33,869,900	16.8%
Total	$201,585,100	100 0%
Accumulated Funds	$43,475,500	

It should be understood that in the accident insurance branch the entire cost of the undertaking is borne by the employer.

The following table gives the corresponding information for the invalidity and pension scheme:

INCOME AND EXPENSE ACCOUNT OF THE COMPULSORY SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT INSURANCE. 1885–1901.

INVALID INSURANCE.

Income:		
From Employers	$145,241,400	38.0%
From Employees	145,241,400	38.0%
Imperial Aid	51,070,300	13.3%
Interest and Other Sources	41,158,200	10.7%
Total	$382,711,300	100.0%
Outgo:		
Compensations	$142,863,500	88.5%
Expense of Management	18,618,700	11.5%
Total	$161,482,200	100.0%
Accumulated Funds	$221,229,100	

REPORT ON GERMAN WORKINGMEN'S INSURANCE.

JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.

In this brief Report on Workingmen's Insurance in Europe, I may fairly take liberties with the division of subjects as originally sent to members of the Committee. At the St. Louis Fair last year every special phase of this insurance was elaborately described in our own language. This literature now is easily accessible to us all. Its origin, plan, forms of administration, financial method and supposed results are elaborately given. Beginning with distinct and restricted wage classes, it has slowly extended to agriculture, making its purpose progressively clear to take in practically every wage earner in the Empire, including widows and orphans. More than this, if we may believe some of the ablest exponents it is eventually to include an out-of-work insurance. That the general scheme has worked itself into the accepted institutions of the Empire is now conceded. There is no thought of change except to simplify its administration and

extend its provisions so that none of the laboring classes will be excluded from its benefits. It has been slowly adopted in country after country in Europe and Australia, so that as a *principle* it may be said confidently to have become structurally a part of modern society. Communities like Switzerland, New Zealand, Denmark, Holland, modify it under the exigencies of local politics and conditions. England, after long and extensive discussion, adopts the essential principle of the Accident Insurance, but halts at the Old Age Pensions, possibly because imperial politics and war in the Transvaal chilled the interest in home questions.

That the main *principle* of this insurance is sound and is bound to extend, I have not the least question; that the voluntary associatons will be found eventually incompetent to cover the whole field, I have just a little doubt. There is no principle like that of this insurance to meet the social or ethical instinct that is slowly developing among us. The clumsy injustices, the grotesque inadequacy of our Employees Liability Acts are gradually getting found out, so that the line of progress is steadily towards some adaptation of the German method.

If, as I understand, the Report of this Committee has special reference to some possible application of the insurance, to our own communities, and that within a future profitable for our practical discussion, a different and far less confident answer has to be given. A German official, who has had to do with this work in his own country since its beginning, has been in the United States long enough to understand some of the differences between our situation and that of Germany. The first awkward stumbling block is the relation between our Federal Government and the several states. Who would think it now worth while to start an agitation for Federal Insurance? But if not that, is there more immediate hope of inducing a single state to try it? Secondly, the fact that the pension, to have the slightest attractiveness to our workingmen, would have to be so utterly beyond that of Germany in amount, that the actuarial difficulties would be very formidable. But more than either of these is the general condition of politics and civil service. The German success, such as it is, has been owing absolutely to a

strictly competent and independent administration. They *barely* succeed as it is. With an administration like that which has controlled our army pensions, what would become of industrial insurance? One-fifth of the looseness and extravagance that have characterized that history would wreck any conceivable scheme of industrial insurance in a year.

It was these perfectly obvious features that I was discussing with this German. He had the heartiest faith in the German scheme; but when I asked him if he were an American and had responsibilities in the matter, would he advise its introduction here, his answer was immediate: "No, I should not, you are not ready for it." I give this incident to state the more briefly my own feeling about it.

Nearly thirteen years ago, I wrote at the end of my Government Report on this Insurance these words: "For any adequate estimate of these material results, ten years at least must pass. Meantime the United States can afford nothing so well as to await the evidence."

I should still repeat these words. We need at least ten years more evidence. There is, however, this hope, that, including Australian Colonies, the sources of a varied experience are far richer than they then were. Another ten years will give us new and far more definite tests, both as to general results and as to the limits of voluntary insurance. To this summary of opinion I wish to add two points. The relation of the German Insurance to problems of charity are of course fundamental to us. Ten years ago one could tell nothing whatever about this. The only sure observation was that the whole educational influence of insurance forced a higher standard of efficiency in dealing with the poor. To those who could not prove that the actual charity burden had been lightened, this new and better standard was said to be evidence enough that state insurance was justified. This may be true, but it was an afterthought. The evidence on this point, if brought up to 1904, is somewhat more convincing. I here add for special students the best reports and studies from 1895 to 1901, including Dr. Münsterberg's opinion up to last year .

SCHRIFTEN DES DEUSCHEN VEREINS FUER ARMENPFLEGE UND WOHLTATIGKEIT (LEIPZIG: DUNCKER & HUMBOLDT):

1) 1895: Heft 21. Freund, Richard. Armenpflege und Arbeiterversicherung.

2) 1897: Heft 29. Brinkmann. Die Armenpflege in ihren Beziehungen zu den Leistungen der Sozialgesetzgebung.

3) 1901: Heft 53. Olshausen, Helling. Das Verhältnis der Armenverbände zu den Versicherungsanstalten.

4) Reitzenstein. Arbeiterversicherung. Armenpflege und Armenreform. Ein Sondergutachten über die Frage: In welcher Weise wirkt die neue soziale Gesetzgebung auf die Armengesetzgebung und Armenpflege ein? 32 Seiten. Freiburg i. Br. 1895.

5) Die sozialpolitische Gesetzgebung und ihre Einwirkung auf die Armenpflege. Auszug aus den Verhandlungen des Städtetages der Provinz Pozen vom 26/6. 97.

6) Olshausen. Die Arbeiterversicherung und die Hamburgische Armenpflege. (Soziale Praxis 1900 No. 42. 44.

7) Zusammenstellung der Ergebnisse der 1894 angestellten Erhebung über die Einwirkung der Versicherungsgesetzgebung auf die Armenpflege. Viertelsjahrsheft zur Statistik des Deutschen Reichs. 1897 Heft 1.

These are recently sent me by Dr. Münsterberg as the seven most trustworthy statements.

At my request he added his own special opinion upon this phase of the question. I wrote him with the more confidence, not only because of his wide and minute experience, but even more because he has been very critical of many claims made by the more confident believers.

Replies from more than 100 places in Germany now report that the Insurance acts as "a protection against poverty," and shows lightening of the charity burden "die Armenpflege in bedeutendem Masse enlasted worden sei * * * " Dr. Münsterberg makes it, however, perfectly clear that he values most the educational influence above noted; the forced recognition that the resources of society should be used and can be used far more extensively in ways of prevention and of cure.

The second point concerns Dr. Hoffman's criticism as a member of our Committee. That his strictures may have in them a very important measure of truth, I readily concede. When,

however, it is said [in his words] "the result of this system must needs act as a tremendous handicap to the extension of German trade to other countries," etc., it is fair to state what astounding progress has been made in that country during the years in which this insurance has been active. I will not stultify my intelligence so far as to hint even that the insurance has caused this prosperity, but a progress so remarkable makes one question how this insurance, regarded merely as a tax and a "tremendous handicap," could have coexisted with the social and industrial strides this nation has taken.

From PROGRESS OF GERMAN WORKING CLASSES, by W. J. Ashley. Published by Longmans, Green & Co., 1904.

Page 90: Though wages have risen 57 per cent. since 1871, the most general articles of consumption, rye bread, potatoes and bacon, have, the first two, fallen 17 and 31 per cent. respectively, and the later risen only a trifle (3 per cent. on an average of 1899 and 1900.)

Page 102: There was a rise in the twenty years, 1884-1904, a rise amounting, on the average of the towns, to somewhere about 25 per cent. It will be seen that in most cases this gain had been largely secured by 1900 — the advance, on an average of the towns, amounting to about 14 per cent. But it will also be noticed, and this is a point of the utmost importance in its bearing upon the discussion that in no case has the recognized rate fallen off since 1900; that in twenty-seven out of the thirty-three towns it has risen, in some cases notably; so that the rate of increase on an average of the towns between 1900 and 1904 has actually been about 14 per cent. also.

Page 108: Statistical work by Dr. William Böhmert.

PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL INCOME BELONGING TO CERTAIN INCOME CLASSES IN SAXONY, 1880, 1896.

Classes.	1880.		1896.	
Under 950 marks	45		36	
950 to 1250 marks	7.63		9.86	
1250 to 1600 marks	6.05	20.39	6.74	23.44
1600 to 1900 marks	3.66		3.67	
1900 to 2200 marks	3.05		3.17	

Page 114: In his *Postulates of Socialism* (1899), the most competent of living German Socialist writers, Edouard Bernstein, adds the following to a good deal of more or less similar information about other countries:

In Prussia, as the readers of Lassalle know, there were in 1854, with a population of 16.3 millions, only 44,407 persons with an income of more than 3,000 marks. In 1894-95, with a total population of about 33,000,000, 312,296 persons were assessed at above 3,000 marks; in 1897-98, the number had risen to 347,328. While the population had doubled the stratum of well-to-do had increased more than sevenfold.

Recent studies (1905) by Professor Sombert, show that foreign trade (in million marks) has increased as follows:

1890	7,472
1900	19,376
1903	11,500

In the test product of pig iron the progress is even more remarkable, bringing Germany last year close to England. As compared to France, this product is nearly threefold greater.

XVII.

Charity and Labor.

ORGANIZED CHARITY AND ORGANIZED LABOR.

BY GRAHAM TAYLOR.

In discussing the relation between Organized Charity and Organized Labor emphasis is laid, for the purpose of this occasion, wholly upon the practical nature of that relationship. However we may differ as to social ideals or sentiments and the economic and ethical principles at issue, none can deny the existence and persistence of organized labor as a fact to be reckoned with by every material interest or body of people involved in its very intrusive and extrusive relationships.

As people who have set ourselves to face the facts of life and meet them in a spirit, all the more humane because scientific and businesslike, we need first of all to recognize the fact of the organization of labor as one to be reckoned with by us if our own ideals and methods are to realize themselves among the people.

From our own point of view of modern philanthropy it is hopeless misconception to regard the organization of labor as any less of a movement of human life than the organization of philanthropy. Its spontaneous rise, its extraordinary persistence against all odds, its capacity to outlive the weaknesses, betrayals and injustices of its organizations, its steady development through the flexibility of life itself to adjust its forms to changing conditions, impresses the student of its history and literature, who is also in first hand touch with the life it is now expressing and the history it is now making, as far more a movement of life than a mere organization. As a whole no organization has had less leadership or at times and places worse leadership. The world around it is the movement of the mass, not of any man or set of men. Here a man and there a set of men seize and exploit the organization — as a great construction company in conspiracy

wtih a Sam Parks did in New York, as the professional blackmailers and murderous criminals leading the teamsters' strike are doing at Chicago, aided and abetted by representatives of team owners, manufacturers and merchants.

The good men and true who are horrified at such outbreaks of evil appeal from the bad organization to the cause not only good, but highest and best to them. "It is hard on the movement" they sigh. And yet it moves on and on, for better for worse, almost, if not quite, as one of the elemental facts and forces of human life. As such, I repeat, it is to be reckoned with. To conceive of it as a temporary paroxysm after more than a century's persistence of its trades-unionism, is hopelessly to misconceive it. To localize and personify it to the measure of a "walking delegate" or obstinate employer, is to ignore the history of literature and legislation it has wrought into the social fabric for a hundred years. To attribute it to the worst in the men on either side is to overlook the best in both, which can only account for the long-drawn-out agony of the struggle between them. To suppose because not more than one-tenth of our manual workers are enrolled in its membership that "it does not represent the aspirations and sympathy of the mass of them," is to be far from the mind and heart of the great majorities. To hope to disorganize labor while capital was never so highly or necessarily organized is incendiary folly, born of ignorance or fear. For better for worse, for richer for poorer till death do us part, the present industrial order is wedded to the organization of industry on both sides of its indissoluble human co-partnership.

The facts then which organized labor roughly represents are to be recognized, studied, understood, interpreted and utilized by us, because we have to reckon with them more and more in every phase of our philanthropic work. Upon our doing so or not will depend the momentous question whether the most cosmopolitan and democratic organization of the people shall fulfill its higher constructive social function to the community, or become the mere fighting machine of a class-conscious struggle; will depend the scarcely less momentous question whether the modern movement of philanthropy shall be also a class organization or a movement of the people's own life.

The point of contact between these two organized movements of life is the economic necessity which accounts for and justifies the existence of each. If that fact be clearly grasped and frankly recognized — at least in our own thought, if not necessarily in our words — each of these organizations can the better be not only interpreted to each other, but can become interpreters of each other's greater movement of the common life. More than anything else, it will tend to modify the antagonisms over the very real differences which actually exist in the cleaving classes between whom we work as interpreters, if not as mediators.

The standard of living is the very forceful factor of both labor and charity, which we find to be far more elusive in theory than in fact, in definition than in our dealing with it. A better first hand understanding of laboring life organized to maintain that standard of living might make it the point of contact instead of the point of conflict. The discussion over the "Poverty Line in York," by Mr. Seebohm Rowntree and Mrs. Bosanquet illustrates how inevitably the standard of living is to be reckoned with in the practical application of charity. A member of this Conference bears the creditable distinction of being the first exponent of the "Principles of Relief" to give due recognition and weight in the forefront of his discussion to the fact of the standard of living, the struggle to maintain which is the labor movement. Mr. Devine's volume is an economist's treatment of the theory and application of relief.

The benefit features of trades unions, their vast proportions, varying methods and very material results are worthier of far more accurate knowledge, sustained attention and adequate presentation than they have yet received. The Cigar Makers' International Union alone presents the most suggestive development of thrift agencies growing to large proportions through a score of years, which would amply repay the investigation of economists and philanthropists. The strike benefits disbursed by the Packing Trades Council at Chicago forces invidious comparison with the provision for the strike breakers maintainance and safety. The "House of the People," at Brussels is a powerful intimation of the co-operative commonwealth within the capacity of working people to initiate and profit by. A committee on Thrift might

well report to the Conference the progress of the movements for trade benefits, co-operative distribution and postal savings banks. Self help not only may thus be promoted, but clearer issues formulated on apprenticeship, limitation of out-put and prison labor.

Our Child Labor Committees were long anticipated by the labor unions' agitation, education and lobbying, which have made possible the legislation in most states. Happily all the available forces from the ranks of labor, among the farthest sighted employers, and in organized philanthropy are being rallied and united by the National Child Labor Committee.

In our organized fight against tuberculosis we find the typographical union skirmish line thrown out far ahead of us in time, in their rally around their home at Colorado Springs for their fellow craftsmen disabled by the great White Plague or worn out by the way. The opportunity to further the great crusade among the largest organized body of the people, which could help us most is indicated in the following letter of Mr. Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, to one of our Committee:

"I beg to say that I have been authorized, and do now invite either yourself or some other member of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, to deliver an address to the Convention of the American Federation of Labor which will be held at Pittsburg, Pa., November 13, 1905; with the purpose that the representatives of the trade union movement of America, in convention assembled, may have the fullest possible information upon the subject and in which way it can be further helpful to study and practically aid in the prevention and cure of tuberculosis.

"The Executive Council greatly appreciate both your visit and the valuable suggestions you made to its members, in all of which I most cordially join.

"If you will arrange to have the articles on tuberculosis written I shall take pleasure in having them set up, and the galley proofs sent to the Labor Press with the suggestion and request that they be published. My only suggestion in the matter is that the articles be made brief, statements terse, and as free as possible from medical, technical, scientific terms. Often the purpose of articles of an important character are lost by attempts at profundity, which tire the patience, as well as being incomprehensible.

"If an invitation is received from the officers of the American Tuberculosis Exhibition in the city of New York, no doubt it will be accepted and one or more of the representatives of organized labor,

authorized by the Pittsburg Convention of the A. F. of L. to accept it. Apart from this we may encourage other representatives of labor to also participate in the Exhibition or Congress.

"Enclosed you will find a letter of introduction to organized labor wherever found, which I trust may be helpful to you.

"Trusting that this may be of assistance to you, and that I may hear from you frequently, I am

Very cordially yours,

(Signed.) SAMUEL GOMPERS,
President
American Federation of Labor."

The industrial solvent of our immigration problem can never be applied without the help of one force, which has more than any other achieved the unification of these heterogeneous and ever antagonistic elements. No such basis for a community of interest, no such real fellowship between different elements, no such social assimilation in one body has been achieved by any agency, as has welded our diverse working peoples together in the great craft brotherhoods of organized labor. Personal fellowship with leaders and the rank and file upon the part of those who respect and appreciate the labor movement will find access for our propaganda, co-operation in union meetings and the very influential and wide reaching labor press.

The reflex influence of such co-operative relations would soon be felt in the democratizing of both charity and religion. In no better way can we demonstrate the claim which most of us would justify that "the charity of to-day is the justice of to-morrow."

XVIII.

Minutes and Discussions.

OPENING SESSION.

Saturday, July 15, 1905 — 2:30 *p. m.*

The thirty-second annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Portland, Ore., July 15-21, 1905. The session was called to order by the Chairman of the Local Committee, Thomas N. Strong, Esq., in the First Presbyterian Church. Prayer was offered by the Rt. Rev. Bishop David H. Moore.

After a solo by Mrs. Anna Selkirk Norton, Mr. Strong introduced the Mayor of Portland, Dr. Henry Lane, who welcomed the Conference on behalf of the city, and of whose address the following is a summary:

ADDRESS BY HON. HENRY LANE.
MAYOR OF PORTLAND.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

The work which you are upon, here, and the movement which you represent, is a great and good one. I have had experience in this line. I was at one time a public official in charge of the poor and of the hospitals for insane. I had an opportunity to inspect the neighboring institution, which was filled with criminals, and I learned that for the people who were confined behind prison bars, and the insane who were equally prisoners and confined behind bars, it takes the closest attention, that it takes a man with a good heart and a kindly feeling; otherwise and inevitably there is a great and most dreadful injustice at times visited upon these people who are helpless to defend themselves.

Unless he has a very strong will and is a man who cares not for his personal comfort, it is almost impossible for a Superintendent of one of these institutions to get exact justice done to the helpless wards who are under his care. There are the great

political machines of the different parties which interfere, and invariably to the detriment of the criminal and the insane. While I was Superintendent of the institution I had the pleasure of seeing a Board of Charities and Correction appointed.

Now the good officer who is doing his duty has nothing to fear from the investigation of any body who comes for the purpose of exactly informing himself as to the conditions which exist under his administration. If he has been a good and faithful officer, and given his heart to his work, he is proud of it, glad to have them come. But to the evil official, the man who is taking advantage of every circumstance for his personal benefit at the expense of those under him, the Board of Charities and Correction, which makes him unexpected visits, is a Board which he has not much use for.

I am not the best man in the community, I am not putting myself up before you as that, but I have a keen sense of injustice. I resent it if a person does me a wrong. A person with that disposition, will resent injustice done to charges under him. That was the ground I took on the matter. I thought that if the wrongs which are perpetrated upon these people were corrected, the right would take care of itself. I perhaps approached it from the wrong end of the argument, but I had quite an entertaining time. I had four years of about as lively experience as any public official has ever had in this State. In time they got me out of the position. I was not ungrateful for that; the position was not a pleasant one. A superintendent of an institution such as an insane asylum, comes daily in contact with six or seven hundred people of the insane class, and one or two hundred of the sane who are harder to handle, I don't mind telling you, than the insane people themselves. Then, in addition, the Superintendent of such an institution must provide for their well being; he must look out for their food, its quality, how it is cooked and how served. He is responsible for the men and women under him who have charge of the helpless people under their immediate supervision. Some people are well fitted for the place; others are as good persons as may ever be in the world, but still they lack a certain tact in dealing with their charges, and the discipline, the good order and the welfare which is the first and only consideration of the institution, begins to suffer. That comes back to the person in charge, and taking it all in all I do not expect in the next two years in this city, as mayor, to have a livelier time than I had while I served at the Oregon State Insane Asylum as its superintendent.

As to the institution near by, I found that there was less feeling in the hearts of the community as to whether the con-

victs had a just and fair deal, or whether they were visited with the most extreme cruelty. They appealed pretty strongly to me, but I found it was not a good thing to go out into the community, where most people thought "they are convicts punished for crimes: most anything they get is too good for them." But I want to say that I found at that time a condition existing in the institution which could not be worse, in some respects, even in Siberia. I do not think that any community which is civilized can afford to allow its criminal class to be unjustly treated. If you treat them justly you have a hope after a while that you may get them to go out into the community and do justice to themselves; but if you put them in an institution, depriving them of their liberty, put them at the whim of a tyranical person who is cruel, you will never in the world reform one person. The manner of injustice, the different types of injustice which had been inflicted on these people, were the most cruel that I have ever seen in my life. That is what converted me to the good cause which you, Ladies and Gentlemen, represent.

Now, this is a matter of reform, and I am in hearty sympathy with you personally. I am not so familiar with the work as you are, but I can appreciate what you are here for, and along your line of work, in connection with the people who represent you here, I think I will be able personally, as Mayor of this city, to give you some results. For I am just as earnest in it as you are, and while you will have to do all the praying you will find me a very good worker, and between the two of us, you doing the praying and myself the work, we will get some results here in the next two years.

We are pleased and proud and grateful to have you with us. We want to treat you kindly, and we will, as far as we know how to. On behalf of the city I welcome you. I thank you for coming, and wish you an abundance of good success, and in the name of the city I extend to you its keys.

After another vocal selection by Mrs. Rose Bloch Bower, the Chairman introduced Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, as representative of the Governor of the State of Oregon, who welcomed the Conference in the name of the State.

ADDRESS OF RABBI STEPHEN S. WISE.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

There is one compensating circumstance in the absence of the Governor of the State, and only one, and that is the oppor-

tunity which is afforded me to bear witness to the altogether intelligent and enlightened interest which Governor Chamberlin of the State of Oregon has, since his occupancy of the office he holds, taken in every affair coming within the scope of this Conference. The officers of the State Conference of Charities and Correction will bear me out that they have had the helpful and sympathetic counsel and assistance of the Governor in every plan and purpose looking to better things under the auspices of our State Conference.

It is indeed fitting that this National Conference of Charities and Correction should assemble in Oregon during the period of the Lewis and Clark Exposition, — not because the Exposition stands for material things and this Conference for the spiritual, for we have the right to believe that our Exposition is in no small degree an exponent of the higher interests and of the spiritual progress of our great Northwestern territory; and on the other hand, this National Conference of Charities and Correction aims, and rightly aims at ministering to the material and present day interests of the men and women and children it seeks to serve. But is it not altogether fitting in this season of our opulence, during these days in which we show how prosperous, how rich, how abundant are all the blessings which have been showered upon us, that we should be reminded by you of those who sit in darkness, of those who are in need, of the disinherited, of the seemingly God-forgotten, children of men?

One year ago when our invitation went to you to come here we wanted the Conference, we needed the Conference, and we were more than grateful and happy when our invitation was accepted by you. In the year that has passed since the Conference at Portland, Maine, we think that we have merited the honor which the convening of this Conference in Portland, Oregon, confers. We feel that we have given you a new warrant for coming here, for in anticipation, as it were, of your advent among us we have garnered a very rich harvest from the State Legislature which met in January and February of this year. As if to honor and to welcome you, we got through the Legislature a number of very important measures. Of two of them, *"Charities,"* of New York, said that these two laws, the Parole and the Indeterminate Sentence laws, placed the State of Oregon in the very forefront of legislation upon penal reform. Then, as the result of a recent enactment of our State Legislature, we have a Juvenile Court in the city of Portland. We have not a Lindsey, perhaps, but we have a Fraser, and we Oregonians believe that Judge Fraser has been sufficiently

Lindseyized to make an admirable Judge of the Juvenile Court. We feel that he has the spirit, zeal and earnestness which mean good things for the boy life of our city. One thing we need, and we will have it with your help, and as a result of the impetus which this Conference is to give to our affairs: we need a State Board of Charities and Correction. We have a State Conference of Charities and Correction, and may I not be permitted to say that at the head of our State Conference stands one of the noblest figures in our whole Northwest country, a man who, after decades and generations shall have gone by will be remembered as one of the builders and a true and wise builder of the inner life, the higher life, of our great Northwest country. I refer to Dr. Thomas Lamb Eliot.

Now, if we have done so much, merely in anticipation of your coming, what may we not hope to do after you shall have gone. As I have been looking over the files of the proceedings of the Conference in preparing, with the aid of others, to draft the Juvenile Court and other laws, it seemed to me that the proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction of one year are invariably enacted into statutory law the year following. These great things have been achieved by your National Conference, — may I not say our National Conference, — because this has been and is a Church of the Divine Fragments, because it is the Church of Humanity. May I not use another term? The National Conference of Charities and Correction is the Church of the Divine Humanities.

One word may I be permitted to use respecting what I have conceived in these days to be the spirit and aim and hope of your body. I have found that the achievements of the National Conference have been due to the circumstance that you have stood for scientific charity, that is to say, for the higher charity, the charity or the alms giving which is rationalized. Rationalized charity you will find has been the inspiration of your body since its formation, thirty years ago. Rationalized charity is the charity of Thomas Henry Huxley, who said that he cared little or nothing for that careless charity which blesses neither him who gives, nor yet him who receives. The work of the National Conference of Charities and Correction has been built, as it were, upon the basic principle of Marcus Aurelius as laid down in his Meditations, "No man can live and be ever held erect by others; he must stand erect by himself." And this rationalization of charity has been crowned by utilization. One of the most interesting and significant things of our age is utilization. The very utilization of the waste products of the garbage of the cities. You stand for just that: you would

utilize all the waste products of humanity. You believe in mending and repairing and utilizing the seemingly wasted, broken, bent, wretched and miserable children of the race.

Then the charity of to-day for which you stand has become ethicized, that is to say, beneath it and beyond it lies moral obligation and ethical responsibility. Time was when man said "This is no time in which to pity man." But we hear other voices to-day, and nobler voices. We hear the echoed voices of the English and the German prophets, the English prophet telling us that a deep distress has humanized our souls, and then we hear that mighty echo from Goethe "Der ganzen Weltheit Jammer fasst mich an!" (*The sorrow and the tragedy of the world takes me in its grasp*). This humanization of the soul by a deep distress, the distresses and the tragedies of the world, has led to just that work which you are pursuing.

Rationalized charity means wisdom. Ethicized charity stands for service and service in the highest sense. It is no small service which you are rendering to the race of men. It was, I believe, Cervantes, who once said, after he had been three years in prison, "I have fought heart break at bay for three years!" You women and you men are standing at bay the heart-break of the race, not for a day, not for a year, and not for three years, but for all years and for all time; now, not to-morrow, not even in the next world, the possible world, but in the present day life. If you cannot see the Kingdom of Heaven upon earth here and now, you are at least seeking to terminate the reign of Hell upon earth, and the Kingdom of Heaven will never be upon earth until Hell's reign has been ended, until the wrongs and inequalities and injustices and the cruelties and the treacheries in our daily living have been ended by just such rationalized, ethicized, concerted service as this.

Then finally, women and men, may I not be permitted to say that, after all, your work and the work of the Conference of Charities and Correction has been for association, for co-operation in service; its key note is unity, — unity not merely as between the workers, but unity as between those who are helped and those who help and serve. Your Conference is the Church of Divine Unity, the Divine and Unified Purpose.

Very often we, the ministers of the different churches of Portland, come together and have what is called the Union Service, the ministers of the different Christian and Jewish churches coming together for an hour or two. Your Conference of Charities and Correction is the Church of the Union Service, the real service, not for an hour or two, not for a day, but for all time, and Union Service in the highest sense,

in Ruskin's own sense, the highest, noblest sense, the service of man to man in and for God.

Now, men and women, may I on behalf of the Governor of the State of Oregon, bid you welcome to this city, and to this State. Navigators of the sea of philanthropy, welcome to Portland. Welcome to our great and beautiful State. Welcome, apostles of life, prophets of service, messiahs of to-morrow. To-day we say to you welcome, in after years may it be possible for you to say, as you review the work which has been done, because of your help and your inspiration, well done. To you, however, welcome.

After another vocal solo, Mr. Thomas N. Strong, Chairman of the Local General Committee, welcomed the Conference on behalf of the Committee. His remarks were briefly as follows:

ADDRESS BY MR. THOMAS N. STRONG.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

This Northwestern Coast, Old Oregon as we prefer to call it, has from the beginning of its history been the goal of wandering bodies of men and women and each succeeding migration, for so goes its history, has been an advance type upon its predecessor. In the fullness of time you have come and on behalf of this Old Oregon it is my pleasant task to give you welcome and express the wish that in accordance with our old traditions you may prove to be the "best yet."

Of all the wandering people of this Northwest I am perhaps better acquainted with the Indians than any other, and amongst my first earthly memories are those of the kindly brown face of the Indian nurse who carried me in her arms, and from this primitive race I may draw some useful lessons for your welcoming.

Like the Hebrews of old their eyesight was undimmed and the stars in their heavens were not shut out by ponderous roofs and walls, nor were the great things of the Universe darkened or clouded from them by the smoke or glare of earthly fires. You have ridden across the plains and travelled over the great mountains and even now our first welcoming gift has come to you, a widened vision and a clearer sight. If there was one thing that the Indian loved it was the gathered Council and the meeting of his wise men in tribal or intertribal assemblies to consider of the things that were vital to his best interests. My heart grows young again with the thrill of the memories of the old Council fires and the gathered throngs that in Old Oregon and

Old Alaska debated the questions that made for the weal or woe of these primitive peoples.

Our second welcoming gift is before you. Already are you gathering in our lodge at the Council of the 32nd Annual National Conference of Charities and Correction. May you be happy in it.

The Governor of the State and the Mayor have greeted you. On every hand you are welcomed by our people. Our Commercial classes will fairly overwhelm you with their cordial greetings, and everywhere your attention will be called to our resources, our lands and our cities. Trade and business promoters will lead you by the hand to show you our commercial prosperity and chances for investment. You will be bidden to see our cities grow, and I would not belittle the gifts that so may be showered upon you, but after all from preference we turn again, for the very best we have to give you, to the wilderness and the wilderness people.

The Indians had one favorite ceremony that solved forever amongst them the question of undue commercialism. For many years they would individually gather to themselves canoes, horses, blankets and clothing, all of the portable wealth that was so dear and necessary to the Indian and then on one eventful day would hold a great "Potlatch" as it was called. To it would be bidden the Indians from far and near, and after suitable ceremonies appropriate to the solemnity of the occasion, this garnered wealth would be distributed amongst the people, the giver retaining only his weapons and the mere means and necessaries of life. You would hardly credit me if, time permitting, I should tell you in detail of these curious ceremonies. Think of a Rockefeller or a Vanderbilt upon an appointed day scattering his hoarded wealth, all his stocks, bonds and properties to the four winds of heaven, quietly, decently, without ostentation or parade, giving out with free hands the hoarded wealth of many years, and of his friends and neighbors quietly and without greed receiving from his hands such gifts as he saw fit to give them.

This in its degree was the strange ceremony of the Indian Potlatch. Following the example of our predecessors in the land we also would like to hold a "Potlatch" to which you should be our bidden guests, and fortunately we have the garnered wealth to give away. Take time while you are here and go into one of our great forest spaces and instead of the cities watch the forest grow. There is good authority for this, for you will remember it is written "consider the lilies how they grow."

When first the Douglas Fir starts in life it is a little fairy thing like a tiny blade of grass, set thickly as the grass is and as it grows it ever reaches upward to keep its head in the sunshine. All its lower branches, shut out from the light, die and wither away only the lofty head and the upright shaft remains. In 50 or 60 years the young trees are one to two hundred feet in height and still are pressing upward.

In 150 or 200 years the forest stands complete. From the top of the high peaks of the hills it appears like a great carpet, the green pile of which is spread over and covers the whole landscape. From below it looks like the groined aisles of some great Cathedral in which distances are measured in miles instead of feet. Ever growing upward, ever reaching towards the sun the great Oregon forest is a thing of beauty, a magnificent type of the wisdom and usefulness of the mere reaching upward toward higher things.

It may be your good fortune before you go home to travel still further to the north and I wish that every one of you might see that wonderful combination of mingled mountains and sea that constitutes the great archipelago of south eastern Alaska. There you will see nature unspoiled in her grandest manifestation and the beauty and the glory of it will stay with you as a precious gift all the days of your life. If it should happen to you as it did to me you may see Glacier Bay in its glory. All day we had laid in the bay ringed in by the cold blue walls of ice and in the evening the boat turned to the open sea. In the west was the glory of an Alaskan sunset and to the north the Crillon Alps and Mount Fairweather raised their twenty thousand feet of height sheer from the open beach. Upon them was the glow and glory of the sunset, and the pulsing of the steamer's engines was as the great throb of an angel's heart and the perfect city in the midst of the delectable mountains that Bunyan saw, was just in sight. In such a scene as this hope can have its birth, and from the memory of such scenes its sustenance. But you need not go so far from home. In some of the intervals of this busy Conference take yourself to the hills back of this city and there, as far as may be from houses and men, look out to the east and see what you may see. You may be very weary of all the wrongs and troubles of this weary world — for in a Conference like this there is brought vividly to every mind the manifold sorrows of what, from the standpoint of this Conference, is a very sorrowful world, and your heart will be full of questionings and of doubts.

Over across the valley of the Willamette stands the great mountain, white and pure and steadfast as it has apparently

stood from the beginning. The city of Portland is a purer, happier city for the great white sentinel that stands guard over the green valleys and the great rivers about its feet.

To the eastward of Mt. Hood there is a little valley and a small river, and there geologists tell us are upturned to the light of our modern day seven great strata that formerly were the surface soils of this old world of ours. Out of these strata have been dug the fossilized bones of strange beasts and scientific men have eagerly searched them for the signs of an old life long since passed away. There were the shores of great lakes and bays and on that hard, cold rock, then soft and fertile soil, grew the great trees and the green grasses, and there the wild beasts, that now are stone, fed, lived and breathed, thrilling with life through all their veins. And the lower-most of these strata, was in position as the surface of this Old, Old Oregon, and on it the trees and the grasses grew and the beasts, that now are stone, fed and played when Mt. Hood was not and when even soil out of which Mt. Hood was made had not yet been laid down as silt upon its ocean beds.

The mountain that brought you peace from its stability and long endurance is in the scheme of this universe a bubble only and the designs and purposes of the power that rules the earth go back to a time when the mountains were not and forward to a time when they shall have ceased to exist. In the sight of this great white mountain, remembering this vale to the eastward where the stone beasts lie, contemplating the great plans of the universe in which a thousand years are in the Creator's sight but as a day, what room is there for fret and worry?

As you look across the valley to the mountains as you look beyond the present to the past you shall have peace, for each of us is immortal until his work is done and nowhere is it written that any one of us must complete God's plans.

These three gifts, Aspiration, Hope and Peace, out of our wilderness treasures we offer to you, and if you accept them you shall not go empty-handed away.

You are welcome, thrice welcome to this New Land and this Young City.

Mr. President, I take pleasure in turning over to you this building as your place of meeting. The city of Portland is profoundly grateful to this Conference for coming so far to meet within its walls. May a blessing be upon its labors so that they shall go on an ever widening influence for good to the ages that lie beyond.

RESPONSE BY REV. SAMUEL G. SMITH, D. D.

In responding to the addresses of welcome, on behalf of the Conference, President Rev. Samuel G. Smith, D. D., spoke as follows:

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

In behalf of this Conference I desire to thank Mr. Strong and his associates on the Local Committees for the very thorough and efficient service they have rendered in preparing for the reception of this Conference. I was chided by some for having set apart an entire session for the welcoming addresses, and the brief responses, but I knew something about the fervent eloquence of the coast, and I did not want to rob you of any of it, and I wanted you to hear these addresses, feeling that there was ample time for them.

On behalf of the Conference I do not wish to be one whit behind, and in the first place I also have an absent governor to represent. Governor Johnson of the State of Minnesota, very gladly accepted my invitation to be present with us, and to make one of the addresses this afternoon. The day before I left home he telephoned me that on account of important state business it was impossible for him to be with us, and bade me give you his hearty greetings in the good work that you are doing.

It was my privilege at the Conference at Portland, Maine, to make a few remarks eulogizing the transplanted Yankee, and I told these folks down in Maine that they never really knew what a Yankee was like until they saw him under more favorable circumstances than New England could furnish. I painted this thing as glowingly as I could, and I finally wound up by saying that out in Portland, Oregon, the transplanted Yankee was the finest specimen that the world had to furnish. I was not in favor of going to Portland, Oregon, to hold this Conference, but after I had described the Yankees of the Coast, the Conference rose up as one man and said "We will hit the Trail and go and look at them." That is how we happened to come.

I know Portland, Oregon, pretty well. I have been here six times. I had the pleasure once of coming to address a charity meeting in this city which was the finest charity meeting that I ever saw. I know something about Portland, when it does not have an exposition, and quietly among ourselves I will say to you that I like it a little better when it does not have an

exposition than when it does. It is all right now, but I will tell you that when Portland is just an ordinary working, every day town, it is the most beautiful city in America, except St. Paul.

We are glad to be with you here in Portland and in Oregon. We have come in the Catholic spirit that was so beautifully expressed by my friend Rabbi Wise. It has always been so in this Conference, there is neither Jew nor Greek, male nor female; but we are all one in the gospel of love and service. That has always been the doctrine of the Conference of Charities and Correction.

We have a program to present to you. I have made myself acquainted with all that this Conference has done and said since its beginning, and I am going to promise now, that the program to be presented in the next week is to be the freshest and the wisest and the best that the National Conference of Charities and Correction has ever presented to any city at any time in its history.

I have the pleasure to present to you a gentleman from the effete east, who is entitled to speak here simply because he has been invigorated by some year's experience with the National Conference, — Mr. Hugh F. Fox, of New Jersey, President of the State Board of Children's Guardians.

RESPONSE OF MR. HUGH F. FOX.

Mr. Chairman, and Citizens of Portland:

No one could be insensible of the great honor of responding on behalf of the members of this Conference to the welcome that you have given. After hearing the inspiring address which Rabbi Wise has given us, I think I may say without contradiction that it was the most eloquent address, the most inspiring and the most comprehensive of the spirit and purposes of the Conference that we have ever listened to.

Mr. Strong's modesty prevented his telling you more about his own work by which the accomplishments of this last session of the Legislature which the Rabbi spoke of, have been brought about. I do not know whether the one and only report of the Oregon State Board of Charities and Correction is now in print. I venture to say that in the course of time in the literature of charities and correction, that document will be regarded as perhaps the rarest that has ever been printed in this country.

It was the most thorough piece of work, I suppose that any State Board of Charities ever did. It gave a plain, bold, frank statement of the condition of every public institution in

the State, of every lock-up, of every place to which the poor and the distressed and the afflicted and the delinquent have been committed. It was so strong an indictment that it stirred the then administration to its depths, and the Governor himself at that time had to descend to the floor of the Legislature to appeal to his fellow conspirators to have Mr. Strong and his State Board abolished.

The same thoroughness which marked the preparation of that report has marked the work of Mr. Strong and his colleagues in the Legislature here this January, and the Local Committee in its preparations for this Conference.

There is an unspoken welcome implied in Portland's reception to this Conference, the welcome which is characteristic of Portland, the welcome which it ever gives to new ideas and to new methods, the welcome which it gives with a willingness restrained only by that element of judgment and ripe discrimination which is also so characteristic of this state of high culture and sublime ideals.

I know Portland somewhat, I believe it is second to no city in the country in its standards of civic right and ideals, and there is a reason for it. It is partly, as we have heard, the history of its early settlement, the character of the people who have migrated here, and the steady and even development of the State, and even, perhaps, the influence of the climate, — but last, although not least, I think it is also due to that remarkable Journal which is published in Portland, which is the pride of its readers and the envy of its competitors. I do not believe that any editorial salutatory which this Conference has received from any newspaper in the land has expressed more adequately and more epigrammatically the purposes of this Conference than the short editorial which was printed in the Oregonian this morning. But a paper such as this is both a cause and effect. I believe the community has the kind of press that it deserves, and that the press itself reflects in a large measure the character of its constituency.

Portland and the Fair are doing a National service in drawing so many people across this continent. The east cannot comprehend the west until it sees it, and I believe that every man is a better American and a better citizen after having crossed the continent, and having seen at first hand something of the problems which must be met.

On behalf of the members of the Conference I extend to you warm thanks, sympathy and appreciation of the welcome which you have extended to us.

In introducing Dr. Norman Bridge, of Los Angeles, Dr. Smith said:

The eastern people have an idea that when they speak about the "coast," they have used the proper term, as if there was a certain homogeneity down this western slope, but of course I am only stating an open secret here upon the coast when I say that there is a good deal of heterogeneity. In fact, the people of Seattle hardly recognize that there is such a place as Portland, and the people of Portland have heard of San Francisco as a pretty good place in the past, and the people of Los Angeles, down still further south, — well, they know that there is only one paradise in the world. Consequently at a conference like this it is fitting that some other place besides Portland should represent the coast. I have invited a man who was reared, I think, in Chicago, and has all of its life and vigor, and who has spent a number of years in Southern California, and has all its Buddha-like wisdom, to speak to you, and although the Jews may have no dealings with the Samaritans, in presenting him to you I assure you that Dr. Norman Bridge of Los Angeles is a good Samaritan.

RESPONSE OF DR. NORMAN BRIDGE.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

The Pacific Coast is peculiar: it is peculiar in its geology, in its wonders of nature, but it is peculiar in that more interesting phase, the tracks and the person of the genus homo. It has been the resort of adventurous people who could not succeed elsewhere and got an idea that they certainly could succeed on the "Pacific Coast." The sick have come hither to recover from their physical ills, and many have come because of the roseate stories of gold and beauty that they have heard. This country has grown up slowly as a whole, although rapidly in spots, and it has grown up peculiarly and some of its peculiarities make it desirable that the Conference of Charities and Correction hold another meeting in its midst. The adventurers came mostly in the early days. They created along this coast a society that was rude, crude and peculiar. In later years more cultivated people have come with more fixed purposes, who have helped to make permanent, stable communities, so that to-day many of the centres of population on this coast have probably no equals in America from the standpoint of culture and refinement. In some of our cities the proportion of strong books borrowed from the public libraries (when I say strong books I

mean all the books except juvenile books and fiction) is greater as measured by the population than in any eastern city. It is not important, therefore, for our civilization, as it is seen on the surface, that the Conference of Charities need come here. But here is a curious fact that makes it fortunate that the Conference has come: as the communities have improved in their superficial and in their real appearances, they have not improved in many of their ways as to their dealings with their dependent people. You have heard of some of the difficulties in this state. Beautiful as it is and refined as its society is, we have heard how bad its penal institutions have been, if not how bad they are to-day. We have heard how bad some of their charities have been in the past and presumably all their faults have not been corrected up to this hour.

As the communities have improved it has been in the exterior ways, in the refinement of their society, in the refinement of their houses, in the beauty of their grounds, in the sumptuousness of their equipages, and in the beauty and expensiveness of their clothes. It has been a slower process to correct the faults of fifty years ago, when laws were passed and organizations made for charities and correction that are superannuated and inadequate to-day.

I frankly say that in our State of California we are not behind Oregon in some of the defects in our institutions of charity and correction. We have altogether too large a number of convicts in our penitentiaries, and too large a number of dependent children in our orphan asylums. What makes the increased and excessive number? How does it happen? Probably several influences have been at work to produce this condition. The great number of people who have come to the coast with no money, with the spirit of adventure, with a small degree of personal self restraint, — these facts might account for the great number of our convicts in our penitentiaries. How shall we account for the great number of our orphan children that are cared for at public expense? One of my own Board will read a paper before this Conference in which I think he will show you that something like ten-fold more money is spent for the care of orphan children in the State of California than there is any justifiable reason for. It comes about because our Legislature half a century ago passed a law that was supposed to be useful and wise, it certainly had the appearance of a humane law. This Legislature would take care of the orphans, and so they legislated that the orphans should be taken care of at public expense. That law has hardly been changed from that day to this, the result of which has been that these orphan

children are cared for in institutions and are ruined in institutions, and the institutions that take care of them are belittled and degraded by the ambition that has curiously grown up on the part of the supporters of some of these institutions, the desire to increase their income from the State and so increasing the number of dependent children under their care. It is for this later generation, holding the newer doctrines of charities and correction, to show our state and to show the other states of the Pacific Coast a better way, as to the children, the way to take them out and distribute them among families, so that they can grow up in homes, so that they can have domestic instincts and domestic tastes, and less taste for public care and public support, and, I am afraid, public crime.

We have heard here to-day what I hope will be true in the future, that the coming of this conference leads to the enactment of laws. I trust that the Conference will put itself on record in a way that will lead to the enactment of laws in the other states of the Pacific Coast, besides Oregon, that will improve our penitentiaries, improve our orphan asylums, lessen the amount of money that is being spent foolishly and to the harm of children, and increase the benefits that we are capable of doing these dependent classes.

I am personally glad that we have come to the city of Portland. Only one fact could possibly make me more glad, and that would be that the Conference might now be meeting in the city of Los Angeles. I hope before many years this Conference will hold a meeting in our city and I promise you that when you come, the city of Los Angeles will receive us not only with open arms, but with all sorts of generosity and good feeling and means of entertainment. I know that the cities of the Coast, as President Smith said, differ; but we are all one people, we have one purpose, we have a purpose to make our respective cities as beautiful, as successful from a business standpoint, as highly refined as possible. We are vieing with each other in creating laws and changing our municipal managements so that better conditions shall succeed from year to year. I believe, really, that the one particular in which we are most behind time, in which we are most derelict, is the particular in which this great Conference can instruct us. We are all anxious to get as much inspiration as possible from this Conference, and we pray with a fervency that cannot be expressed, that the spirit of this Conference may become enacted into laws for our benefit and, that when you come to the coast in a few years again you shall see that there have been marked improvements in these particulars.

Conference adjourned until 8 o'clock P. M.

FIRST GENERAL SESSION.

Saturday Evening, July 15, 1905.

The Conference was called to order at 8 p. m.

The president, Rev. Samuel G. Smith, D. D., then delivered the presidential address, which will be found on page 1, after which the Conference adjourned until Sunday evening at 8 p. m., the session to be divided — two meetings to be simultaneous.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION.

Sunday Evening, July 16.

The first division of the second general session was called to order at 8 P. M. by President Smith, in the First Presbyterian Church.

Hon. Ben. B. Lindsey, Chairman of the Sub-Committee on Juvenile Courts, conducted the proceedings of the evening.

Judge Lindsey. — We are very much honored in having in attendance at this meeting a number of the Judges of the Juvenile Courts: Judge Mack, of the Juvenile Court of Chicago; Judge Fraser, of Portland, and Judge Frater, of Seattle, who are somewhat new in the work and Judge Brown, of Salt Lake City.

I do not remember in my attendance at five National Conferences in the last five years having so many judges of Juvenile Courts present as we are honored with. There are also in attendance several probation officers, and other good women interested in probation work.

I regret to say that one or two of the judges upon the program have written me that they were unable to come. Judge Hurley, formerly Chief Probation Officer of Chicago, who was to deliver one of the principal addresses this evening, has just written me that under the new law in Illinois a Commission had been appointed to conduct a civil service examination for Probation Officers, which, by the way, is a great advance in legislation in dealing with this question, and notifies me that he has been selected a member of that Commission and that their meetings are now under way.

Mrs. Alice B. Montgomery, Chief Probation Officer, Pittsburg, Pa., was then introduced, and read a paper on "The Child of the Juvenile Court" (page 167).

This was followed by the report of the committee, "The Progress of the Juvenile Court Movement," read by Judge Lindsey (page 150), after which the subject was thrown open for general discussion, Judge Mack being called upon to open.

The following is an abstract of the remarks of those who spoke:

DISCUSSION — JUVENILE COURTS.

Hon. Julian W. Mack, Judge Juvenile Court, Chicago, Ill. — *Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:* I shall not endeavor to take away the magnificent impression that the noble words of Judge Lindsey must have made upon your minds by anything I shall say, so that I shall be very brief. But I do want to say a word for one class to whom, in my judgment, sufficient credit has not been given, either by the speakers of the evening or by those who write about the Juvenile Court, and that is not merely the mothers of the country, but a very noble band of spinsters who are giving up their lives to this work. No doubt motherhood breathes sympathy for the neglected children of other mothers, but I have found in Chicago and I have no doubt that it is true all over the country, that a noble band of women are devoting, sacrificing their lives for the children of others, who will not themselves be mothers, and I say all honor to those women who are giving up their lives to this great work!

No one values probation and the work of probation more than I do, yet in that for which the Juvenile Court strictly stands, the principle of probation really comes second. The first, the basic principle of all Juvenile Court legislation, is that however delinquent he may be, the child is not a criminal. The true source of that delinquency is to be sought, in heredity or in environment, and then the cause is to be eradicated. If it be the environment that has produced the condition of delinquency, the child is to be removed from it. The child is to be taken in charge, and the hereditary tendencies are, so far as possible, to be eradicated if the cause be heredity.

In carrying out the reform or the improvement of the child, probation is the mainstay of the Court. No other method is so much employed and no other method is so desirable wherever probation is possible. But the fundamental principle from a legal standpoint is that the child is not a criminal, and if New

York still requires a criminal charge, then New York has never adopted a proper Juvenile Court law.

We, in Illinois, treat the cases of delinquent children exactly as we treat those of dependent children. The Juvenile Court is a Court of Chancery, a Court representing the paternal power of the State, because over the parents stands the State as the greater power. As the representatives of that greater parent, the Juvenile Court Judge sits, not as a Judge of a Criminal Court, but as a Judge of a Court of Chancery, determining only one question, — "What is best for the future of this child?" — because in determining what is best for the future of the child the Court determines what is best for the future of the State.

In carrying out the reform of the child, the first and the greatest help of the Court is in the probation system. Angels of light and of love such as we find in Pittsburg and in Chicago and in Denver and elsewhere as the Chief and the Assistant Probation Officers, can do much to solve the difficult problems, but they alone cannot accomplish the work. It will be found that each paid probation officer has many more children in his or her charge than he can possibly fully undertake to oversee, educate and reform. But if, in the reformation or change or supervision of every child that probation officer had at hand one thoroughly good man or woman, one man who has made a success of life, whose own life and character can be an example, whose advice can be a guide to a boy, one noble woman who can show a girl that the path of virtue and of honor is the only true path in life, then the work of the probation officer, supervising all the work of these individuals, helping the individual when he or she is in trouble, would indeed be successful. In a city of the size of Portland, with the wealth and with the comparatively small degree of delinquency and dependency that one finds in these prosperous communities of the great west, it ought not to be difficult for the Judge of the Juvenile Court to obtain all the help that he needs from the community at large. He will need the paid probation officer, he will need some one, or ones, who can devote their entire life to the work, but he will need over and above all this, the help and the support of the community. Every man and woman in this community, and particularly every man and woman who is so much interested in this work as to have given us the benefit of their presence this evening, can surely take unto himself or herself a friendly interest in one of these boys and girls, only one. There will be enough for each one of you and if each one of you will take one, the problem of youthful delinquency in Portland will

surely be solved. I appeal to you to aid the Judge of the Juvenile Court, because I know myself how much the Judge of the Juvenile Court needs the aid of the people of the community.

In Indianapolis, a city not so very much larger than this, this plan of probation work has been most successfully applied, and I see no reason why it cannot be applied with equal success here. Perhaps I might add a few words to what Judge Lindsey has said in regard to the progress of the Juvenile Court movement, if I call to your attention the fact that this conception that the child is not a criminal however bad he may be, whatever acts that in an adult would be termed a crime, he may have committed, at least not until he shall have repeated again and again those same acts, that this principle has at last been adopted in old England, and in Australia, and is breaking ground even in conservative Germany and Austria. One of the very best works on the Juvenile Court has just been published by an Austrian who visited this country, and who gives the full measure of praise to the great work that is being done in Denver when he denominates the Court of Denver as the model Juvenile Court of the country.

That points out what we sometimes lose sight of, and what is perhaps of almost supreme importance in the administration of this principle, that the American Legislators are not afraid to repose the greatest discretionary powers in the Courts. That idea of not measuring out the sentence that is to be imposed, of not strictly defining the action that the Court has to take, but of giving the power to the Judge of the Juvenile Court to determine in his own absolute discretion what, under all the circumstances of the case, is best fitted for the boy and for the community, — that is a conception entirely foreign to the laws of Europe. It is a conception that I am happy to say is the prevailing principle wherever the Juvenile Court act has been adopted. Everything, therefore, depends upon the proper administration of his duties by the Judge of the Juvenile Court. It were well if, in the larger communities, the Judge could devote his entire time to the work, but I fear that for some time to come the answer will be given as Mrs. Montgomery says it has been given in Pittsburg and in Philadelphia, that the Judge who is to act in the Juvenile Court has also other duties to perform. I do not say that it is wise to have the Juvenile Court Judge elected as a separate and distinct Judge of a separate and distinct Court, doing nothing else, but it certainly is unwise for a judge appointed to this task to take the position that he will give just so much time to it, no matter how much time the

work demands, and that he will devote all of his other time to other duties which, however serious they may be, however much they may involve in dollars and cents to the litigants who may come before him, can never, under any circumstances, be as important to the state as the solution of the problem of the Juvenile Court, — "What shall we do with the delinquent and the dependent boys and girls so as to raise them up to good honest, noble citizenship, they who shall be the supporters of the community one generation hence.

In calling upon Judge Brown to take part in the discussion, Judge Lindsey said:

Judge Brown has the distinction of being the only judge with us, and one of the only two judges in this country, who are judges only of a Juvenile Court. Judge Brown has the further distinction of being the only layman who is judge of a Juvenile Court. Judge Brown had much of his training in work for boys in the city of Chicago, where so much splendid work has been done.

Judge Willis Brown, Juvenile Court, Salt Lake City, Utah. — *Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:* When I first assumed the duties of Judge of a Juvenile Court, about three years ago, I took my own juvenile delinquent, Ralph, and I said, "Ralph, if Papa takes this job you have got to help him. Now if I am going to tell fathers how to raise kids, why I have got to have a good one myself, and if they say 'Why, here is Judge Brown's boy, he don't mind his mamma, he runs around on the street,' why, I will have to lose my job." About the second week of our Court, Ralph came into the house one night and threw his hat on the lounge, and sat down with a disgusted look, and mamma said, "Ralph, what is the matter?" It seemed he wanted to go next door and play with a boy, and she had told him he could not do it. He said "This is a Harry of a proposition: I have to hold Papa's job down." He thought if he exploded in the yard I would lose my job.

I might better tell what we are doing in Salt Lake by giving the first experience I had in Court, and my last one. The Court opened up on the 13th day of April, and during the busy session, with many people who were curious to see how a man who was not a lawyer would conduct a legal court. There was a tramp in the hallway, and the door opened up and a sixteen year old boy ushered seventeen boys into the Court room. I said "What is this?" "Well," he said, "these kids want to give themselves up." I said "What have they been doing?"

"They have been smoking cigarettes." "Well, what have they come here for?" "Why, you told us when you was in public school here about a month ago, that the police officers didn't arrest us because they felt sorry for us. You said if they ever had a Juvenile Court they would arrest them, because they would not get in the police court record. So they heard a Juvenile Court had started, and they thought they would come themselves and give themselves up before the cops got them." That was our first experience about boys giving themselves up and giving us their hearts in that way.

I think we have in Utah one of the best laws. I think it is the first State which has a law entirely out of politics. We have a Juvenile Court Commission composed of the Mayor, Chief of Police and City Superintendent of Public Schools, and they appoint the Judge. I should not have had one vote if it came in politics, because I had lived in the city but one week. These three men said, "Here, Brown, you gave us this law, now you work it out." And so we are working it out. We have practically coined a new term, so the lawyers say: we have civil law, administered by a Judge of the Civil Court, and we have probate law, administered by a Judge of the Probate Court, and we have criminal law, administered by a Judge of the Criminal Court, and we have delinquent law, administered by a Judge of a Delinquent Court.

To illustrate what we do, and I am positive I would still do it if I were a lawyer, I might tell my last case. A lady and her daughter brought a little girl of eleven years of age into the County Attorney's office, and made the complaint that the father of the girl was whipping her with a horse whip. He didn't know what to do with the case, because it was about twenty miles out of the city and entirely out of my jurisdiction. "Now," he said, "we will have to strain a point to get this man (we have the adult delinquency act). So he made a complaint charging the girl with violating a statute of the town of Murray. It seems she had been drunk two weeks before this. When it came up in Court I said to the grandmother of the girl, "How comes the girl in the city of Salt Lake when she lives in Murray?" The grandmother said she ran away. Then I thought I could handle the girl as a runaway. She was in Salt Lake City and had no mother and had no father there, so I handled her as a runaway girl, and found that she had been drunk, and so I declared her delinquent of our Court, having no proper guardian, ordered her to reappear the following Saturday and placed her in charge of her grandmother. Now I was through with that part of the case. Now why did

the girl run away? In the establishment of our Court we had more in mind the protective feature than the corrective. Captain Woods, our Probation Officer (the best one in the country) and I, just get hold of a girl that way, or a kid, and we follow the string, and one case brought us twenty-one. This case is going to develop a baker's dozen at least. I asked the girl what she ran away for. "Father whipped me." "What did he whip you for?" "For getting drunk." "What did you get drunk for?" "Well," she said, "it was in the cellar there and he drinks and grandpa drinks, and we thought we would taste it, and we drank." I issued a warrant for the father, and the sheriff brought the father in at noon. He is a respected citizen of the town of Murray, a man getting a large salary, who owned his own home, had plenty, furnished good clothing and good food to the children. He was very much distracted to think that he was arrested. I said to him, "Did you whip this girl?" "Yes; but she didn't run away, Judge, the grandmother stole her. They are trying to collect $700 from me and they are trying to get this girl, and they just worked me up to such a state that I licked her. I could have shot myself the next morning, when I found how hard I had used that whip. They even tell the girl here I am not her real father," and the man broke down and cried. I said "You whipped the girl?" "Yes." "And she has scars on her even now?" "Yes." "Well, I will have to put you in jail thirty days." I added "I will suspend twenty-nine days and you may serve one day." He said "I don't want to go to jail. Everybody knows me. I can bring one hundred witnesses to prove that I am a respectable citizen. Isn't there any appeal?" "None whatever. This is the Juvenile Court. You have to go to jail." Well, the County Attorney was smiling, and I would not have said that had I been a lawyer. He said "What will I do?" "Go to jail. You whipped your girl, you have six others and stunted the growth of one of your boys by licking him with a horse whip." "Well, I am not going to whip him any more. Say, Judge, if you wont send me to jail I will never drink another drop of liquor, so help me God." I said "All right, you can take your choice: go to jail one day and be under suspended sentence twenty-nine, or I will fine you $50 and suspend the fine if you take all the whisky out of your house and never drink another drop, never use the horse whip again on your children, and pay $3.50." He said "All right, Judge." He pulled out a handful of gold, and he said "Take all you want." Our Probation Officer took $10.50, he thought that would care for the girl until he got back. As the man left the room he said "Your Honor, I will

give you a square deal on this." So we expect he has had every bottle of port taken from the cellar, and he has had no more himself, and the horse whip has been used on the horses and not on the children; and the girl has improved in her conduct.

I expect to get much help from the associations in this Conference. We have a great delegation here. We have all our Industrial School people, and our Probation Officers, and we expect to gain much. We are new: we have only been in operation three months, but we have had two hundred and ten cases, and we have two stenographers and four probation officers and a Judge and three rooms, and we are the busiest Court in the land. We keep a horse and buggy out in front all the time, answer calls at all hours, put babies to bed at ten o'clock at night and hold Court at eleven o'clock to keep boys out of jail, and I tell you we are busy.

In Salt Lake we are not only correcting, but we provide for the protection of the child. I am glad I have no other duties and that I can browse around at night, and be with the boys, and take them hiking. I took sixteen boys up to the industrial school the other day, so they could see the school, but they understood they were going to play a game of ball with the school nine. We lost by a score of forty-six to two. The boys said they got nervous, and they didn't even stop to eat their dinner with the other fellows of the Industrial School but we hiked down the pike to the car. One of the boys said to me, "Not on your Willie will I ever be here, Judge." "Well," I said, "you are under suspended sentence, and your mother says you ought to come here." He said "You see my mother in a week." So we use all sorts of devices, not only to get the boys' confidence, but to let the boys know we are there for their betterment.

A woman came in the other day to complain about her boy. She said, "He wont mind me, he tells me to shut up, he will stay out at night, and I must bring him up in this Court before he commits a serious offense." So she brought him in court and I asked the boy, "Did you ever drink?" "Yes." "Ever get drunk?" "Yes." "When?" "Three days ago." "Swipe things?" "Yes." "What did you ever swipe?" "Stole one watch." And yet the mother was going to bring him in Court before he committed any serious offense, because he "sassed her."

I want to say what every Juvenile Court official in this convention will say, that the inspiration of our work for boys springs from the noble example given us by our worthy chairman, Judge Lindsey.

JUDGE LINDSEY.— We were very anxious to have Judge Fraser, of Portland, speak to us to-night. I congratulate Portland on having such a big hearted man at the head of their Court, and I hope we will hear from him to-morrow morning.

Session adjourned until Monday morning, July 17, 1905, at 10:30 o'clock.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION.

Sunday Evening, July 16.

The second division of the second general session was called to order at 8 p. m. by the General Secretary. The meeting was held in the Unitarian Church.

Mr. Devine, Chairman of the Sub-Committee on The Warfare Against Tuberculosis, read the report of the sub-committee. (Page 233.)

Mr. Devine then took charge of the meeting and called on Dr. Livingston Farrand, who read a paper on "Tuberculosis in Institutions." (Page 240.) He was followed by Dr. Woods Hutchinson, who delivered an address on "The Open Air Treatment." (Page 250.)

The discussion was opened by Miss Harriet Fulmer, of Chicago, who presented a brief paper illustrated by some stereopticon views of nurses' work among the tuberculous poor. Miss Fulmer's paper was as follows:

OPEN AIR TREATMENT OF TUBERCULOSIS.

BY HARRIET FULMER.

In the outdoor treatment of tuberculosis in its various forms, the nursing care plays no small part toward successful recovery. Many of you recall the splendid paper read before this Conference in Detroit several years ago "on the care of the tuberculous poor" by a physician and humanitarian, Dr. S. A. Knoph. In this paper, he spoke most feelingly of two things. He was not in favor of any preventive work in stamping out this disease that should make one single afflicted one feel himself an outcast from the social and working world, because of it. He declared that in the homes of the poor, where alas the disease

has its stronghold, the nurses could and should be the greatest factors in teaching that cleanliness, sunlight and fresh air meant recovery and a continuance at work in nine cases out of ten.

In a small way the Visiting Nurses of Chicago are demonstrating that the out-door treatment may be carried on successfully in the heart of a great city. Under vigilant care they hope to show a good record of recoveries, the record being kept expressly of these cases to show the result of open air treatment. I have now the record of a case in mind, that of a young Italian girl of 15 who in addition to pulmonary tuberculosis has also articular tuberculosis of both hips. For one year she has been under the care of the nurse, who, rain or shine, has put her in her wheel chair, on the back porch of a fourth story tenement in a closely congested district of Chicago for 12 hours each day, at night sleeping with the window open. She has had four eggs and two quarts of milk daily, and her improvement is so marked that Angela has become the wonder of the neighborhood. She is now the caretaker of her home, while the mother and father are away at work all day. This child was sent home from a public institution to die. After her two months in the woods of Wisconsin, where she now is, she will be recovered sufficiently to take her rightful place in the working world. The case has required great patience and much money, and I cite it only to show that with out-door life, and proper food in any clime, recovery is sure to follow. It is a matter of economy to provide this care for hundreds by the establishment of open air municipal sanatoria.

The Visiting Nurses have been fortunate enough to have given to them the use of three tents for two months for 20 tubercular cases. Tent 1, will have 10 suspected cases. Tent 2, 6 incipient, and Tent 3, 4 advanced cases. The nurse in charge gives daily oil rubs, requires the patients to rest in bed and sees that each one takes the required amount of milk and eggs. The amount invested in this special effort will be $500, and with continued care throughout the fall, we hope to show that two-thirds of the cases are saved. For those who cannot afford the more expensive sanatoria, the Illinois State Medical Society has established a tent colony at Ottawa, Ill., where the small sum of $10 per week is charged. The colony desires only to be self-supporting and is not carried on for money making purposes. Nursing and medical care is included in the amount charged.

The Chairman called upon Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull to continue the discussion.

Mrs. Trumbull. — Most that the doctor has said of other states and of other institutions applies in intensified degree to the states on the Northwest coast. I have been able to obtain trustworthy information from but few of these institutions. In only one juvenile institution in Washington is there any definite preparation for the treatment of this disease, and that is the Washington Reform School. The Doctor in charge there tells me that he has made every preparation for the treatment of the disease in an intelligent manner. But in our own state there is absolutely no provision, whether because the disease has not appeared, or because of lack of knowledge of the treatment of it, I do not know.

In the Oregon insane asylum there is no provision whatever. In the Eastern Washington asylum for the insane there is under course of construction a separate building which will no doubt be adequate for this purpose. In all our institutions on this Coast we run up against the political problem, and it is a hard one to meet. In Oregon, the superintendent of the asylum for the insane has gone to the Legislature during both his official terms with a plea for a separate building for this class of patients, but he has failed. He has met with a lack of interest which is very discouraging. It has been shown that 20 per cent. of insane patients either have tuberculosis or contract it, and in these institutions the worst problem is not that the insane patients may be cured and sent away, but that they may be cured of insanity, but not of tuberculosis, which they take away with them to infect others.

What we need among state institutions most is to interest the public and educate the legislators in the danger of tuberculosis.

The only almshouse in the state of Oregon that has made any special provision for the care of tubercular patients is the one in Multnomah County, where a separate building of wood has been erected for the purpose of isolating the patients, which, while better than nothing, is not ideal. The poor pauper who is fed upon skim-milk, eggs once in a while, and contract meat, has not much chance to get well of tuberculosis, I am afraid.

We must get the public interested, awaken the legislators to the danger of the spread of the disease from institutions, and never lose our interest for one moment ourselves, and perhaps in time something more will be done.

There is no provision in the Oregon penitentiary for the tuberculous inmates, but I believe there are some steps in that direction under way. In Washington I believe there is no pro-

vision; but when they tell me they have no tuberculous inmates I am inclined to doubt the veracity of the statement.

The Chairman then called upon Dr. Norman Bridge, of Chicago, who spoke as follows:

Dr. Bridge. — We have seen to-night that we have a beginning of what can be accomplished by the wonderful courage of men. My friend Dr. Hutchinson has taken very radical grounds in the direction in which his attention has been drawn — most towards this subject of the prevention and cure of tuberculosis. He probably has been and is insisting upon more than is possible to realize, but in all reforms we need just such radical standards. Reforms are usually effected by people who insist on more than is to be expected and demand more than they can get.

Miss Fulmer is enthusiastic for and interested in her branch of the work. The reason is apparent why her district nursing in Chicago succeeds — such success she and her helpers well deserve. Every one who has observed her work in Chicago knows its nature. Every person who comes near her in this work gets some of her enthusiasm and some of her inspiration, and believes that she is doing it the way it should be done, and is the right person in the right place. What she says is true: We have to go into this work and get all the workers and all the enthusiasm enlisted that we can, and cure as many of these people as we can; this we must do even though in most of the work we fail. We must insist that the Common Council and the Legislature shall appropriate money for the care of the indigent tuberculous patient in the slums and out of the slums, and we must work in both directions and in all directions along the lines that have been demonstrated by workers who have had the most experience.

In a conversation with Dr. Pettit who has charge of the colony in Ottawa, New York, he said that there was entirely too much money being spent upon buildings. The money should be put into bringing the patients out into the open air and not into buildings to take them into. The State of Rhode Island has spent $200,000 for sanatoria for indigent consumptives of that state. Dr. Pettit said to me that he could have done more for these poor patients with $25,000 if he had been given the opportunity to do it in his own way, building tents for them in the summer and some sort of wooden structures for them in the winter. The patients like these better than houses and decline to give them up for indoor life. They remain in the tents with-

out fires except for kerosene fires at night and morning to dress and undress by; they go into the open air in all kinds of weather, living there constantly; if not able to walk about they sit around in their chairs when the weather is at zero and below, and they improve constantly and persistently with this treatment. Dr. Pettit is feeding these people on the plainest and simplest foods, butter, eggs, milk, meat, fruits and some vegetables; they are only in the sanatorium a short time before they acquire the habit of eating and will take five, six and seven feedings each day, or in the twenty-four hours, and they acquire the habit of living out of doors.

I am sorry to say that I am obliged to agree with my friend, Dr. Hutchinson, that a considerable proportion of my own profession fail in recognizing the disease early enough and in telling the patient the truth, when they do recognize it. Many of them still do not admit that it is a curable disease. A large percentage of the profession are afraid of the progressive methods. There are many who are willing to take up with the new and progressive ideas of the world; but this is not the rule. They not only do not believe in them, but discourage and belittle others who do believe.

What I say in disparagement of my own profession is on the other hand highly complimentary to the ladies who are studying the treatment of tuberculosis; they are taking hold of the dreaded subject with an energy and persistence which only inspired enthusiasm to do good in the world can account for.

I had hoped to see my friend John C. Lowman of Cleveland in Portland. If he were here he could tell you a story that would equal any fairy tale you ever heard. In the city where he lives he has succeeded in enlisting some eight or ten different organizations in the work of caring for these poor consumptive people. First he gets a medical college to give him the use of a room; then he enlists financial aid from philanthropic people — perhaps only a few dollars to begin with and the room is prepared for the work. He enlists the interest of physicians and secures medical attendance, interests some other organization and gets the necessary medicines; then the visiting nurses' association is asked to do the nursing, to visit these patients and see that the treatment is carried out; he gets some charitable society to give clothing, food, bedding, or any other necessity required to properly care for his sick. He has encouraged the children to take up home gardening, he has interested the people in themselves and encouraged them to try to make better, stronger and healthier men and women and children; he has done and is doing a work which can only be

equaled by some other good man who is doing the same work. Every one with whom he comes in contact is enthused with his wonderful ability to do things. If we had more John Lowmans in the world, our world would be better, and the race a stronger, healthier one.

It is very important that consumptives should be educated how to take care of themselves. It is necessary that they should know they are consumptive, if they are. They should not only be taught how to care for their own welfare, but they should be brought to care for and protect others. The destruction of the sputum is an important factor in this education. It is not only the visible sputum, which they are compelled to destroy by their attendants, but it is the minute particles which get onto and cling to their clothing, both wearing apparel and bed coverings. They must have it impressed upon their minds that their attention must never grow weary on this point; they must know and the people around them who are living with them and caring for them must know, that they are throwing off millions of tubercle bacilli every day if they are at all careless. The most stringent measures should be adopted to protect those surrounding the tuberculous patients; and nothing should be overlooked in teaching and educating the public and the press in the value of care both with the patient and on the part of the nurses and daily associates of consumptives.

The next speaker was Dr. Tomlinson, of St. Peter, Minn.

Dr. Tomlinson. — I studied tubercular conditions with a deep and continuing interest, and I want to call the attention of the Conference to a few facts. I know nothing so important as the elimination of three elements, which exist.

First, is the feeling of stigma attached to the family in which there is tuberculosis. You would be astonished if you had much experience in the study of this disease, by the feeling that exists in this respect. Because of it, it is impossible for the patient, or the family, to give the proper attention to the treatment and cure of consumption in the family surroundings. A consumptive is regarded with almost as much stigma as if he were insane in many instances.

Second, is the feeling that a diagnosis of tuberculosis in a patient, is equivalent to a death warrant. The depressing effect of this is enormous, and the feeling of the patient and his family and friends is so emphatic, that it often influences the physician in charge to keep the fact to himself. If a physician does tell the patient the truth he will often discharge him

and employ some other doctor. This also influences the physician to not tell the truth to the tubercular patient.

The third element is the failure of the physician to recognize the condition at an early stage. It is the tendency of the consumptive to believe that he has not got the disease, and symptoms which might lead to a proper diagnosis of the case are often purposely kept away from the attending physician.

Then again when the patient is told about it he does not believe it, and will not help to cure himself. He should be educated to believe that he is curable, and be told to do the things necessary to cure him. There is no one who can do more in keeping up and cultivating the spirit of hopefulness than the patient himself. The sanatorium is the only proper place for him to betake himself to, for there he is not constantly met with discouraging friends and sympathizing relatives who shake their heads and say it is too bad. Then again the proper diet is often almost impossible to secure even in well regulated homes, and diet is a great medicine for the consumptive.

It is necessary that the tubercular patient have proper food, and that he be told how necessary it is for him to take what is given him, the same as if he were given a medicine. He must be educated to eat plenty of good plain wholesome food. And here is a point in which the women have it in their own hands to control and bring about the proper reform, and I believe if the women will give less attention to the poets and artists and the writers and more to the cookery question that they could do in a short time a great deal of good. We must have food, and we well people should have the right kind; in many cases if we did have the right kind we would always be well. The sick man from consumption cannot be better if he has to go on with the same food he got sick on, and in a great many cases the main difficulty is in knowing how to cook proper food.

Dr. Hatch, California. — I want to say simply that for several years we have worked in the state hospital for the insane in California to provide some method of segregating and caring for the tuberculosis patients. About a year ago we erected a small tent colony in Mendocino County, where we have provision for 15 patients, all the beds occupied all the time. The expense was very light; we have established our place for about $100 per patient; the patients are making remarkable progress and recovery, and we believe that this is the only proper way to treat this disease.

THIRD GENERAL SESSION.

Monday Morning, July 17th, 1905.

The meeting was called to order at 10:30, President Dr. Smith in the Chair.

The Rev. E. L. House, D. D., Pastor of the Congregational Church of Portland, offered prayer.

Committee on Resolutions appointed as follows:

Dr. H. H. Hart, Chairman.
Miss Mary E. Richmond, of Pennsylvania.
Dr. J. K. McLean, of California.

Committee on Credentials appointed as follows:

Mr. Alexander Johnson, Indiana, Chairman.
Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Illinois.
Miss Mary Hall of Connecticut.

Committee on Organization appointed as follows:

Mr. James F. Jackson, Ohio, Chairman.
Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Illinois.
Mr. L. A. Rosing, Minnesota.
Mr. George B. Robinson, New York.
Mr. Michael Heymann, Louisiana.
Hon. Ben B. Lindsey, Colorado.
Miss Frances Greely Curtis, Massachusetts.

Dr. Smith stated that the Committee on Time and Place will be organized by the election of one representative from each state, and the state delegations are requested to meet at the close of the session this morning in various parts of the Church, and report to the Secretary the name of the person who represents the state.

The session was then turned over to Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Chicago, Chairman of the Committee on State Supervision and Administration, who conducted the morning's proceedings.

After the report of the Committee had been read by Miss Lathrop (Page 420.), Mr. Thomas N. Strong was called upon to open the discussion. The following is a summary of his remarks and of the remarks of others who participated in the discussion:

Mr. Strong, Portland. — *Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:* When I am asked to open this discussion I suppose that I am left free to criticise or question anything that may come in this report. I think the last two pages are worth all the rest of the report put together, because they begin to strike at the crux of the question.

Our State institutions are placed in charge of the Governor, Secretary of State and Treasurer as a Committee or Board of Control. The penitentiary is in charge of the Governor alone. The very method of the government of these institutions places them absolutely and completely under partisan control. If there is a Republican administration in charge that administration manages the insane asylum and the penitentiary in the interests of the Republican party or in the interests of the people who at that time represent the Republican party, which is perhaps a very different thing. The same thing is true when the Democratic administration came in, and when a combination comes in, as now exists, of a Democratic-Republican administration, when there is a Democratic governor, and a Republican administration otherwise, they came to this understanding: The Governor said, "I will take charge of the penitentiary, and do you not meddle with it"; and the Secretary of State and the Treasurer said, "We will manage the other institutions, and you keep your hands off them." I will say this for the Governor: that he has managed the penitentiary with more skill and thought than any of our Governors of late years. You may have noticed, the State Board of Charity report published in 1892, in which non-partisan management of every corrective and charitable institution is recommended. As every hospital tent on every battle field of civilized warfare is an emblem of neutrality, and sacred for the protection of sick and wounded men, so, and more so, in political warfare the asylums for dependent and insane should be sacred from the attack of contending parties. So much for the ancient abuses. The disease is there.

Now let us touch the remedy, if it is possible. When a branch of this Conference met here sixteen years ago coming from the San Francisco Conference, I thought there was a little pride of opinion in the Conference itself. There was a tendency, perhaps, to look upon some great agencies outside of the Convention as being somewhat stupid. So we held our Convention in a theatre, so as to avoid the Church as much as possible, because we were afraid you were a little bit timid about churches just at that time. You were comparatively young scientists. I noticed at that time that there was, in the church, a sort of intolerance of this body or of people with like

instincts with this body. They were looked upon as disturbers of the peace. The ministers said that the call of the minister was to preach the gospel, and not to go down and mingle in the strife of man. And so these bodies to a certain extent stood far apart. From that time on there has been gradually an approximation of the two forces, the religious force and the scientific force. It is exemplified at present by the meeting of this Convention in this church.

Well, what is necessary to correct this condition of affairs. The only thing to do is to change the mental attitude of the people. This report calls at the end for an intelligent interest of the public, but that is not enough: There is an intelligent interest in it now. There is no more intelligent interest in the State of Oregon than the intelligent interest devoted to the distribution of the spoils when the spoils are to be distributed. There must be brought around in some mysterious way that change of the mental attitude that in men and women is one of the strangest things on earth. How that change comes about you and I cannot tell. How it comes about in our own minds you and I cannot tell. But in some mysterious way in individual, in city, in county, in State, in nation, there a change sweeps through the mental attitude, and that mental attitude governs the State as absolutely as anything on earth can govern its subject.

We have to-day in this State four Democratic officers in important positions. Every one of them owes his position in a strong Republican State to the fact that he recognized the mental attitude of the people of Oregon that he must carry out the wishes of that people. Now here is the ancient abuse, the ancient disease. Here is the necessity for the change of attitude. How are you going to change it?

Some years ago for the National Municipal League at Philadelphia, I prepared an address that they published, and I devoted that whole address to the absolute necessity of utilizing the separate organization of the Church in the work of this moral reform. In other words, we must do as Mr. Charles Bonaparte says: we must mix our religion with our politics. And if I criticise this report in any way, if I criticise the action of this Conference in any way, it is that it must give up some of this faultless accuracy, some of this beautiful and fine-spun philosophy, and look to its fighting force. Way over there across the Pacific, Oyama, in his headquarters, and Linevitch in his headquarters, are preparing, figuring, studying, but all either of them can do is to put their armies face to face and order the charge and depend on the soldiers. In this work we must

join hands with the Church. Now that is not academic. In the city of Philadelphia only a short time ago the ministers turned out in a body. And here in this city of Portland, only a few months ago, when the city was fighting for her spiritual life, when everything was at issue, when the lines were drawn just as clean as they could possibly be drawn between what we in the West call the open city, and what we in the West hope for as a city, our ministers came down, every man to his task, and no regiment of Cromwell's ever charged with half the steadiness or half the solemnity that this Church did with its ministry at its head. We owe to that alliance the fact that we were able to save for the time at least, the spiritual life of this city, and if you would save the spiritual life of the country, if you would save the spiritual life of the State, you must make the same alliance, not with any particular Church, but with the men and the women who recognize their accountability to some higher power. They are the ones that must fight your battle for you, the Christlike men and the Christlike women must carry on the plans of this Association and this Conference must join hands with them, and feel the thrill and the pulse of the charging squadrons.

Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago. — One of the conclusions which the Chairman read in her report was that there must be enlisted in this work the finest of trained ability. It has seemed to me that in the way of developing that thought a little it ought to be said that two things are necessary before we can have that recommendation carried out. More than two things, of course, — many things; but I want to speak of two things in particular.

In the first place, the work of serving in public charitable or correctional institutions, must be made a work of honor, a work to which any young man or young woman can look forward with a feeling that it is worth while, — worth while financially, and worth while from the point of view of the man or woman who wants to do something useful. In order to make this a profession to which bright men and women are willing to turn, we must give the people who must make it a success a tenure of office. It must be possible for them to use it as a life work, not a work of a year or a stepping stone to something else, but as a work which is worth going into to stay in as long as they retain any sort of active interest in affairs. To do that it will be necessary for us to clear the institutions of that sort of political control which finds its greatest field for activity in the turning out and turning in of new sets of political followers. There must also be an assur-

ance that whoever goes into public service in the institutions shall have opportunity to advance in the work. We cannot afford to let tenure of office be the attraction simply, because that would tend to cultivate a sense of content and a sense of security, which would handicap usefulness, which might be a check on a habit of doing things better constantly as time went on. But therefore we must have systems arranged which will enable us to advance our people who come into the public service, from time to time, so that they may always look forward to something.

A second thing is that we must provide means for educating and training workers. If we make places for trained workers we must give them some chance to get training. We must look to our universities, colleges and schools of higher learning for that. In New York, the school of philanthropy and the schools which have attracted somewhat less attention, but have been doing good work in some other cities, especially in Boston, are also to be commended. But we need more than that. We must look forward to getting universities and colleges to place in their curriculum regular courses of study which prepare for public service of the kind that I have spoken of.

But I must pass on from that, because I want to speak also of the sustained public interest which Miss Lathrop has put down as one of the necessities. The more people we can have interested in our public service, not as servants but as interested citizens, the better it is for the institutions. I believe that a great many of our institution managers have made a mistake in assuming somewhat of an attitude of independence of public sentiment. There is a feeling in many institutions and a most natural one, that the constant pouring in of the public, curiosity seekers as we say, and there are many of them, is such a difficult thing to manage in an institution. The trouble of keeping patients quiet in insane hospitals, and such things as that, are greatly magnified by the influx of visitors. That is true, and needs regulation, but it can easily be carried to a point where we crowd the public back, and say "This institution has to be managed just so, we are the managers of it, and we will have to ask you not to come around and not to take too much of an active interest." We do not say that in words, but that is the effect which it has on a good many people who are outside. There is danger, I believe, in that short sighted policy. It will tend to discourage public interest in our public institutions of all kinds, whereas the very strength and life and advancement of these institutions is absolutely dependent on public interest. I believe a great deal can be done through the

work of our colleges everywhere in teaching young men and women that they have a duty towards the public which must lead them inevitably to take an interest in what goes on around them in the care of dependants and delinquents, and all of those charges that come upon the state or the county or the municipality. The greater the publicity in all public affairs, all our institutions, charitable and correctional, the greater the intelligent interest will be.

The thing which I have in mind may be illustrated by the Society in Chicago with which I am connected, which is a private society. The Society began in a very small way, ten or twelve years ago, and had a great deal of difficulty in getting $3,000 or $4,000 a year to keep itself going. It adopted the method of district committees, and many different plans of getting the people interested. It got people into the committees, although they perhaps did not know the first thing of what the Society was trying to do, but getting them in there and showing them what it was trying to do, and the changing of these committees led to them being interested in this society. After a few years about five hundred different citizens had given more or less time and attention to the work of the society, and the result has been that the standing of the society has advanced. An income of two or three thousand dollars a year, in ten years has grown to sixty-five thousand, and the number of people who have become interested in it through passing through these committees, has grown to be a great many thousand. The thing is applicable, I believe, to our public institutions. Any policy which could be adopted which would tend to so concentrate the control and management of these institutions in the hands of a few people as to withdraw the invitation to the public to come in and take part, by visiting committees, or in any other way is bound in the long run to result in the narrowing of public interest and in the injury of the institutions themselves.

General Armstrong, who was introduced as having seen service in the Philippines, was then asked to take part in the discussion, speaking on the subject of Trusteeships of Public Institutions. Briefly his remarks are as follows:

General Armstrong.— My first experience in trusteeship, for I am an old regular, although I am here to-day as a volunteer, was in Virginia. In our subdistrict we had the oldest insane asylum in the country at Williamsport. I found nine hundred patients there, and only one-half dozen negroes. All parts

of the state were clamoring to get negroes into this asylum. I appointed a local board to see if we could not get rid of some of the patients. We found two hundred patients that had been entirely cured, or who ought never to have been there. I found that, before the war and before our time, the Board of Trustees had failed to get rid of these old respectable patients. They were kept there simply as in a poor house. The fault with that trusteeship is that they had no committee of inspection that was effective. To have an effective inspection you must, if possible, go back of the bills, and I introduced there the army system of inspection, which is very rigid, as you know.

I was three years in charge of a soldier's home in Ohio and I just left there a short time ago. I found that the trustees there were appointed for five years. These trustees went to the institution sometime late in the evening, spent the night there, looking over the papers, and left generally at two o'clock the next day. They were all honest men, as far as I know, but they all wanted a certain amount of patronage for their own districts of the State.

I favor a State Board of Control. Not as you have here in Oregon, where the officers are simply ex-officio members, but I believe in a State Board of Control whose simple duty is to be trustees. They will do it more effectively as paid men, and holding for long terms, than a Board of Trustees appointed for small periods.

Mr. Graham Taylor, Chicago.—The matter of control, sooner or later, must resolve itself into definite form in regard to the state boards, whether of control or merely advisory in their relation to the institution. But if the state is to exercise any real control over these institutions, the State Boards of Charities must see that these institutions are equipped with able men and women. Now it seems to me that they cannot command such a personnel as they need to have in charge of such great interests unless some degree of authority and responsibility is reposed in them. The Secretary of the State Board of Charities is the executive officer and Secretaries of the State Boards of Charities in this country have generally dignified their office; many of them have been experts of the first and highest authority.

The appointment of those Secretaries of State Boards has in many instances been left with the members of the Boards. It is very hard on the State Board of Charities to have their executive officer appointed by other than their own authority, for if it is the entire administration of their function and office is largely conditioned by one over whose appointment and the continuity of whose office they have nothing to say. Far be it from me to

say anything about these secretaries who have some of them arisen to distinction and many of them to great practical efficiency, and been appointed otherwise than by the votes of the members whose executive officers they have been. Nevertheless, I make the plea that if it is worth while at all to appoint a State Board of Charities it is worth while to have such men appointed as can be trusted with the selection of their own executive officer.

Having said that, and feeling that it is of very great importance in the practical administration of institutions of the state and to the state control or supervision of them, let me make this further point, that as practical people we must face things as they are, and where State Boards of Charities have executive officers appointed by the Governor then it does seem to me that there should be the utmost encouragement and the utmost good fellowship extended and that we should be far from maintaining an attitude of carping criticism or unjust discrimination.

MR. EDWARD T. DEVINE, New York City.—Mr. Strong says that the main thing is to secure a change of mental attitude. I have no doubt but that there are times and occasions when the main thing is to get people to take a different mental attitude, but it occurs to me that for the country, taking it as a whole, and for the greater part of the time, the main thing is not to get people to take a different attitude but on the contrary simply to explain things to them, to be sure that they understand them, and then give them a channel through which they may express the mental attitude that they have. I am convinced that, so far as our charities and hospitals for insane and prisons are concerned, the great majority of the citizens of our commonwealth are non-partisan. They are desirous of keeping them out of politics. They are desirous of having the right thing done, of calling experts to the state service and securing these experts in permanent tenure of office. But in the multiplicity of things they have to attend to as citizens they do not understand always what is going on, and so a continuous permanent channel of education, of explanation and a means by which the real mental attitude of the people may be expressed, seems to me to be the thing that is needed. About four years ago a very enterprising and energetic governor in our state tried to abolish the State Board of Charities by making it a single paid commissioner, and practically everybody in the legislature was in favor of doing it, but they didn't do it. Toward the end of the session one of the prominent politicians came down from Albany and said he didn't believe the law would be passed. He said, "Everybody up there is in favor of it, and the only people opposed to it are the Catholics and the Jews and the Protestants."

We have learned a great deal in the four or five years' strug-

gle we have been having about our state charitable institutions. One thing we have learned is to give continuous publicity to the institutions, furnishing information to the daily press (that is apt to be on the right side about these matters), through the churches, and by every possible means of reaching the public. Now, when anybody proposes any vicious legislation at Albany, about one hundred letters and telegrams shower down on the desk of every member of the two houses of the legislature. They know, because they also have been learning something in the last four or five years, that that does not represent any enormous change of mental attitude on the part of the state; they know that what that means is that a little group of people, reaching from New York City to the great lake, are awake, are keenly alive to what is going on and that they have notified thousands of people of what is being done, and requested them to send in these letters and telegrams. Politicians are more afraid of a small, organized group of people who are letting people know what is going on than they are of stupendous outbursts.

Dr. H. C. Fairbrother, East St. Louis, Ill. — Just one word to draw attention to one point in the report of the Chairman; the lack of efficiency in proper training in mental diseases on the part of the faculties governing our insane institutions. I know that our institutions are sadly in need of better development on the part of the medical staff in the line of mental diseases.

I would be glad if a body of this magnitude could adopt such a report and could impress it upon the public, especially upon the appointing powers, that we need at least one expert in mental diseases on the staff of each of our institutions of insanity.

President Dr. Smith. — I want to get on the record two facts. The first is this, that in several of the medical colleges of this country there is clinical work done in mental and nervous diseases, including insanity, although they do not have their own clinical institution. We are not doing as well as they do in Germany, but certainly as well as they do in France. In the University of Minnesota alone we are educating hundreds of young physicians who actually go through wards of insane hospitals, and the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons does the same thing, and there are others.

The Chairman. — We have nothing in this country to compare with the clinic just outside of Paris, and you will find no school in this country which in any respect compares with the requirements of Switzerland, Italy and Germany.

President Smith. — I make this statement in regard to clinical insanity. I criticise the lack of sufficient medical training on this point, but I want to put on the record that we do have clinical training in this country.

In American universities there is more work done in training the mind with respect to corrections and charities than in any country in the world, including Germany. There are more courses in charities and correction in American universities for training students in these matters, and therefore diffusing public sentiment generally, than any country in the world, including Germany. In our own university, of which I might speak if I had time, more than one thousand of the best young men and women in Minnesota have listened to lectures on correction and charities in the last three years.

Mr. Timothy Nicholson, Richmond, Ind. — How can you expect colleges and universities to establish chairs to train people for this kind of service until you get the public so thoroughly aroused as to prevent any board or governor from appointing any body who is not qualified for the place? Until we can get the public, the governors and the boards, either the individual boards of institutions or the boards of control — until you can get them to such a state of public sentiment that no governor and no board will dare appoint a man to the head of an insane asylum who is a mere country doctor, and never had a case of insanity — how can you expect colleges to spend the money and the time to get such people ready when there is no prospect of their being employed.

Judge Mack, Chicago. — I do not intend to talk on a subject of which I know very little — practically nothing — but in answer to the last speaker's remarks I should say that one of the great hopes of this country is in the universities and in the colleges, and that it is the duty of the university and the colleges to make the start in this respect, to give us the men who are able to stand at the head of these institutions, and then the great force of public opinion brought about by such organizations as this will compel the governors and the boards of trustees of the insane asylums and of the other institutions to appoint the men whom we will then have in this country to take charge of these institutions.

Mr. Nicholson. — How can you expect a young man to spend time and get ready for this work, even if the colleges have the necessary courses, if there is not an opening for them?

Judge Mack. — I should say that "Hope springs eternal in the youthful breast," and that we may depend on the young men and young women of this country to go into the line of work, and create the positions and create the demand for their services.

Dr. Andrew W. Hoisholt, Stockton, Calif. — I take pleasure in indorsing that part of the report which speaks of the German institutions. I studied in Heidelberg, Germany, in 1884, and have been connected with an American institution since 1889,

and two years ago I was over there again for half a year, two months of which was spent in study.

I must say that the report is truthful, is correct and bold. The time must come, and the time will come, when the acute insane will receive proper treatment. The investigations at the hospital at Heidelberg go into details. The detail brings the study of the individual, and it is only the study of the individual that can bring out the proper treatment. When I was over there it is true that I found that the Americans had better houses, they fed their patients better, gave them more meat to eat, and other good qualities of food; they clothed them perhaps better, and they are more cleanly, but as far as the treatment of the acute cases is concerned America is still behind; and when I think of some of my cases at Stockton Hospital — I have a few who have been there fifty years and still live, which speaks well for the care they have received — still, when you think that modern methods might have cured many of those cases, you can see where the true economy lies.,

A friend of mine, Professor Moll, of the Johns Hopkins University, said, "It is too bad that the state hospitals through the country are not more closely connected with the universities. Such connection would not only give clinical material, but it would give scientific inspiration; it would give better work.

There is one point I wish to speak of, however. That is with reference to the Johns Hopkins University. When I was in Copenhagen I asked one of the men if they had there a clinic in psychiatry. They said they didn't know what that was, and didn't know that anything in that line could be accomplished. I informed them that Professor Patton had had one for two years.

S. R. CUNNINGHAM, M. D., Indianapolis, Ind. — I simply want to take exception to what the gentleman from Illinois and the Chairman of this session have said. Now we do have competent men in our institutions — in the larger part of our institutions. The young men of our institutions are nearly all competent psychologists. They have to be before they can practice medicine in our state. If you don't think they have to be, read the questions put to them in the state board examinations for license. The man has to be a scholar to pass these examinations, in almost every state in the Union, not only in medicine and surgery but in every other branch. Now, Mr. Nicholson, I know, said the right thing when he said our superintendents of institutions should be proper men and scholars. If they are they will surround themselves with good men; if they are not, they are ashamed to surround themselves with the best men, because it shows them up. That is true in some of our institutions. Now, as to the education of our young men in our colleges of this coun-

try. We have some of the very best, and alienists not only from France but from every other foreign country come here for clinical work and for study. That I can show you by statistics and special articles from the best alienists in France and Europe.

H. A. Tomlinson, M. D., St. Peter, Minn. — I perhaps ought to say nothing to-day, because I will have my share to-morrow, but I should like to mention three things that have been referred to, which stand in the way of progress in this work.

The first is inertia of custom; next, is superstition; and last is preconceived ideas. Inertia of custom is hard to fight, superstition and preconceived ideas are hopeless to fight; it is simply a question of waiting for them to be lived down, and I do not know of anything that will better illustrate what I want to say than one or two anecdotes.

As to inertia of custom and preconceived ideas, you know that from the time when we inherited from England our method of caring for the insane there has been always a picture in the public mind of either the pauper or the criminal, and nothing else, and while we talk of our great advances so far as most of us are concerned to-day we think of the insane man as either a pauper or a criminal always. Even this morning, in one of the discussions where I was present, the insane were spoken of in connection with the inmates of the state prison. This is well illustrated by an interview I had with a professor in the University of Minnesota, who came to visit the institution and to look after a friend of his who is an inmate of it. He asked to see the patient. After he had seen him, he said, "Doctor, what were the charges brought against this man, and how long was he sent up for?" When a professor in a state university will talk like that, what can you expect from the general public?

So far as inertia is concerned, and its influence upon all public affairs, I think it is well illustrated by the anecdote of the donation party to the minister up in Vermont. Among other things that were to be provided for him was a can of milk, from which to make a cheese for the winter, and each farmer was supposed to bring two quarts of milk. A can was set for this purpose out in the shed. Deacon Brown, when he went out to milk that evening, didn't get as much as usual, so he said, "I will take in my little bucket two quarts of water, and among all the milk it won't be noticed. The next morning, when the minister opened the can there wasn't anything in but water.

Mrs. Mary Roberts Smith, San Francisco, Calif. — On this matter of supervision of public institutions it seems to me there are three parties whose interests are apparently in conflict. The first is a minority of persons, who are more or less tabooed by the public at large; they are the experts in charity knowledge and

charity practice. The experts in charity knowledge are mostly confined to college people. The experts in charity practice are mostly confined to those situated in private institutions of charity which have grown out, to some extent, of the defects in public institutions of charity. The second party in interest is what we call the politician. The political class are those who look to the offices in public institutions as a reward for the work which they put into politics. They are not necessarily any worse or better than the rest of us; it is merely that their self-interest is engaged in a different direction in the management of public institutions. At any rate, it is not necessary for us here to say that they are worse or better. It is necessary for us to recognize that they will, like the rest of us, follow the line, on the whole, of their main self-interest. The third party in interest is much larger in number, and, for the most part, wholly ignorant of the details of public institutions; that is, the citizen at large, who may or may not be a member of a church; the church class and the non-church class; the good, quiet, peaceable citizen, who goes about pursuing his interests, but who is willing, when he sees a concrete case, to rise up and do something for the public interest — he will give money, he will give time, he will educate himself, if you will give him a chance.

We see commonly that there is great indifference on the part of the public. That indifference, to my mind, grows out of the fact that the public is not sufficiently taught. And here you will see that I belong to the tabooed class, the pedagogue class, of whom the public at large is more or less suspicious in this matter of charity. What I want to emphasize in bringing these distinctions is this, that what we need just at this stage is a campaign of public education on a slightly different basis and from a little different standpoint.

When California wants one hundred thousand farmer colonists it gets up a big committee of business men, they subscribe money and create a working committee to advertise the State of California, and in the first year we get thirty-five thousand pseudo colonists. When we want to get together good people in working for non-partisan boards or for expert knowledge in the management of insane asylums, or any other thing, why can't we go on the proper basis and send out people who will talk to the public. Every Sunday evening, in every church, ought to be given to explanation of concrete instances. If Mr. Lindsay, after he told us some of the concrete instances of his court, had said, "I want $10,000 for work in my city," he would have gotten it. If you give concrete instances of want, you can make any community do anything. What you want is to get people to know something, to tell it concretely, and to go about telling it con-

cretely, and to forget whether this institution is better or worse or this way of going about it is better or worse, but meet on the broad, general ground of advertising what we think we need and what we think we ought to do. That is one of the chief objects of the national conference.

Miss Lathrop, Chicago. — I want to say something, not as the Chairman of the Committee, but as a member of this conference. I have learned it, and I have loved it, from the standpoint of one who is interested in public charities. I have seen it broadening its interests from year to year. The charity organization people, the settlement people, the social workers, are coming in more and more, and I welcome them all. But I feel as if we who know public charities best should fail in what we do for them, if we do not remind ourselves and the rest of you that nothing ever can be so important as the question of public charities, that which all of us do for a few of us. No other responsibility can be so tremendous, and we cannot afford to feel that this is not so interesting as other things. We cannot afford to be discuoraged about this. What we can afford to do, what we must do, is to say to all these people, who have taught us to look at these things with a big and a generous vision, that we must return to our own problem in the light of this social illumination which we have got and which we cannot afford to live without.

What is it makes people insane? Why is it the immigrant leaves behind him a trail of a higher proportion of insanity and brings to this country a higher proportion of insane than exists among the native population of our country? There is a puzzling maze which we have not entered upon, but which we cannot set aside. We have to think about them more solemnly, more nobly. I am not the person to do it, and I do not know how to say it, but somehow I feel very much, as we leave this committee and leave this subject, that if somehow we all could be thrilled with a sense of the responsibility that we should feel for this subject of public charity, the responsibility which those of us feel who look at these social matters with wide and unobstructed vision, who have been in the forefront of all these movements, how much could be accomplished.

During the discussion Mr. Strong, on behalf of Mrs. Helen Ladd Corbett, invited the members of the Conference to a reception at the Art Institute.

Adjourned until 8:00 P. M.

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION.

Monday Evening, July 17.

President Smith called the fourth general session to order at 8 P. M., and introduced Mr. James F. Jackson, Chairman of the Committee on Needy Families in their Homes, who conducted the proceedings of the evening.

MR. JACKSON, Cleveland, O.—*Ladies and Gentlemen:* I think it would be well, before reading the report of the committee, to read a letter from William H. Baldwin, of Washington, one of the members of the committee, who, as you know, has given a great deal of attention to desertion. The letter is as follows:

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 2, 1905.

Mr. James F. Jackson, National Conference of Charities and Correction:

DEAR SIR:—It seems to me the important thing now is to have everybody understand that it is possible to extradite deserters wherever the offense is a misdemeanor, so that action can be taken under present laws in all suitable cases.

I have found a good many people among charity workers, including a prominent lawyer who had been Chairman of a State Conference, and another who had compiled the statutes for his state, and others of similar standing who have said that a misdemeanor is not an extraditable offense. This is an off-hand opinion, based on the popular impression that it is not; and this grows out of the fact that for most misdemeanors nobody wants to get the man back, but it would do no one any good to get him back simply to punish him.

Each of the men above referred to took it back on looking up the facts, as they would have done before if they had had any occasion to investigate them.

Desertion differs from other crimes because it does a lot of good to get the man back, and make him relieve the community of the burden he has unloaded upon them. We want him to support his family; we don't care so much about punishing him if he will do this; so I have found a universal willingness on the part of all state officials to assist in the matter.

As the offense is a felony in only five states, while it is a misdemeanor in forty, it is apparent that the greatest advantage will be gained by establishing the custom of getting requisitions

for misdemeanor, and not by doing nothing in any of these states until each of them can pass a law making the offense a felony.

Miss Richmond's resolution was introduced two years ago to ask the Governors to aid in this matter, and many of them said they would. Others have expressed themselves in the same way to me in my investigation, and I have *nowhere found,* and I have *diligently* sought the *facts in order* to *find any opposition,* any opposition *whatever* on the part of any state official to granting requisitions for deserters where the offense is a misdemeanor.

I want to make this plain, for it is important to know that any failure to bring a man back where the offense is a misdemeanor is due to the failure to exercise the right which the law gives and which the officials are willing to recognize.

And yet there are a lot of people still who have the other impression. I wish the matter could be put in such a way that every one in the Conference shall understand the facts and be able to act on them.

When deserters have this impressed on them by a few examples there will be less desertion. We can't help deserters any more effectually than by asserting, as the *N. Y. Herald* has recently done, that "Governors will not consent to the extradition of any one for a misdemeanor."

You can get plenty of evidence as to this in the study of the laws published by the C. O. S. of New York, and our A. C. here, if you care to look it over.

I trust this matter will be brought forward, for this is the weak point now. I have been surprised at the persistence of this error. Let us go at it and extend the custom which Illinois has had for eight years.

Very truly,

Wm. H. Baldwin.

In the absence of any objection, the letter was added as a supplement to the report.

Mr. Jackson read the report of the Committee (Page 344), which was followed by a paper by Mr. Gutridge on Investigation (Page 359), after which the question was thrown open for discussion. Following will be found, briefly, the remarks made.

Mr. J. H. Glasscoff, Omaha, Neb. — I just want to say, in regard to investigations, I have been very successful in my investigations as an agent of the County Commissioners, in going to the neighbors and finding out in regard to people's circumstances, and I have always as a rule gotten true statements.

When people come for supplies and make their complaint I give them the benefit of the doubt and then investigate afterwards.

CHARLES P. EMERSON, M. D., Baltimore, Md. — I will preface my few remarks by describing the work of the medical students at Johns Hopkins. About four years ago we began interesting medical students in charity organization work. So successful were we that during the past year we had fifty-five medical students hard at work doing splendid service and in the city about fifteen others connected with different institutions of learning in that city. In other words in a city which takes pride in the number of its volunteer friendly visitors, one-fifth of them belong to the student body, and eighty per cent. of the men were medical students.

The reason the students take such interest in that work is not because the social disease is similar to the physical disease, but because investigation in both cases is first and last the thing to be emphasized. The medical student knows that diagnosis is necessary before treatment, except the very simplest. That is, a patient comes in with a sore heel. The trouble may be not in the heel, but in the hip. A successful treatment of that case needs first of all, diagnosis, and the diagnosis cannot be made without investigation. But our medical students are not allowed to investigate for themselves; the students depend on trained investigators, and they follow out their advice. Investigation does not, of course, mean over much investigation; it means enough investigation for diagnosis by a person who is well enough trained to do it. For instance, a person comes in with some pain in the body. If you relieve the pain by giving the person morphia, the morphia habit occurs and as long as the pain continues the person desires more drug. Suppose a person comes in and asks for food; give them the relief they want and the longer the relief is given the more they want. The more that is given, the more poor individuals we have behind us, provided that was not the seat of the trouble. In other words, to interest our social students, in the social disease we must have a diagnosis. A systematic, good investigation by a person who knows how to do it.

MRS. S. I. GEORGE, Denver, Colo. — Investigation, besides its value as a means of intelligent understanding, reaps for a visitor or an organization the reward of a sympathy which is not generally obtainable in mere office practice. It therefore seems desirable that all charity workers should take part in the visitation and investigation of the poor in their homes. It is simply impossible for people to get an intimate knowledge of the home life of the poor without visiting them frequently

When I first saw the register of the Charity Organization Society of Denver I did not know very much about the home life of the people, and I had not the sympathy for them that I have now. I think charity organization visitors act on the theory that there are some elements in human nature which never change, but that there are others which are very susceptible of change, and the true charity worker believes that they may always change for the better.

Enthusiasm in charity work is very desirable. Even more desirable than training.

The better the co-operation between the charities of the city, the less expensive and the better will be the investigation. In our city, as many of you know, we have an organization among the charities. The money is raised and distributed among these charities every month. The bond is very close between us both financially and socially, so that it is not difficult to keep informed about those who try to take advantage of every avenue of relief. We work together, we meet together very often, and we keep informed about charitable matters very well.

Mr. Edw. Rubovits, Chicago. — Investigation is the most important thing in giving relief to needy families, but at the same time it is the most difficult thing to do right. I will illustrate what I mean by examples that have come under my observation.

About four years ago a man came to our office asking for assistance. He said he was a brick mason. That man was a Russian Jew, having been in this country but about two years. He said he was sick and that he must be helped. He had a wife and three children, and the old mother of his wife lived with him. I asked him if there was any suffering in his house now. He said, "No, I have $15 but that will soon be gone, and I must have assistance." The man impressed me favorably. I want to say here that I do not investigate all cases. I investigate cases that come under my observation which I consider important. I went to the house. I was invited to sit. The man spoke to me, and the old mother-in-law came to listen. The man arose, gave his chair to his old mother-in-law, and he stood up. That made a very good impression upon me. I made up my mind at that time that he was a good man. I was given carte blanche to do for this family whatever I could. I told him to go ahead and to find something. He came back and reported that he could buy out a little grocery store. An old couple who were tired and unable to conduct it further would let him have the fixtures free and the stock was worth about $140. The man has paid back by this time voluntarily every

dollar and he is to-day a subscriber to the United Hebrew Charities of Chicago.

Another case came under my observation. A poor woman, enceinte, claimed to be deserted and had three babies, the oldest not four years. I had some doubts about that case. A man brought her into the office and recommended her, knowing positively that she was a deserted woman. I investigated that case personally. The neighboring women told me when the man left, and how she suffered and how things were. I relieved the case and carried it on for nearly three months. A visiting nurse came in one morning and told me she had never seen such a condition, — that there was a man coming into that house at all hours of the day and night, and that it must be the husband of that woman. I sent for the man whose name and address I had as the deserter. I confronted him, and asked him why he made his wife say that he had deserted her, and why all the neighbors testified to that lie. He said he was told to do so. Now I had made a thorough investigation, but we found we were defrauded.

I just simply mention these two illustrations and give them to you to show how important it is to investigate and how sometimes we fail when we think we know it is all right. Investigation is the most important thing in the work of charity.

Mr. Charles M. Hubbard, Cincinnati, Ohio. — I never like to let an opportunity go by when the subject of investigation is under discussion without saying a word to try and correct what seems to me to be a wrong impression that so many people get as to what investigation means, and what it is for. I think that the organized charity movement suffers in a good many ways by having its best things misunderstood. The trouble is that too often when we tell about the value of investigation we cite as some illustration of it some family that has turned out to be fraudulent, and that story sticks in the mind and when the person who hears that story goes to tell somebody else about the work and the value of the Associated Charities they think of the fradulent family and they come to look upon Associated Charities as a kind of detective agency. I have in mind two families that came under our treatment within the last few months that illustrate these two phases. One of them was a man and wife and four or five children. When the agent called there the wife told a very pitiful story about her children having whooping cough, husband out of work, and a combination of circumstances that were very pitiful indeed, and impressed the visiting agent with the truthfulness of her story. Help was given, but after further inquiry it was found that the woman

was operating under a false name, instead of her husband being out of work he was working steadily in a factory earning some ten or twelve dollars a week. The relief was discontinued. The family in the meantime had been given over to a church, who were proposing to pay their rent and had supplied them with relief. It was one of the most glaring cases of fraud we had to deal with during the whole winter. Naturally when trying to show the value of investigation the tendency is to cite that family. But there was another family that came under our observation of a somewhat different character, and it seems to me that we ought to cite cases of that kind rather than the first. A woman was reported by a neighbor as being in need of coal and groceries. The facts were found to be as reported. With only superficial inquiry food and clothing would have been supplied and the case dropped; but further inquiry developed the fact that there was a married son who was earning good wages who ought to be supporting his mother. He was threatened with prosecution and he agreed to pay $5 a week for the support of his mother. Then it was discovered that the woman had applied for a pension, which was pending and there was some hitch in the proceeding. The agent helped get evidence and corresponded with the Congressman, with the result that in a few weeks a pension of $12 a month was given to the woman, so that she was placed beyond the need of further help. The investigation enabled that work to be done.

It seems to me we can illustrate the value of investigation by reference to the physician in the army. His business is to help the sick. Occasionally a soldier tries to play off and shirk duty by pretending to be sick. Incidentally it is his function to discover these frauds, but you might as well say that that is his sole function as to say that the principal function of associated charities in this investigation is to detect fraud.

The purpose of it all is to enable the visitor to put himself in the place of the applicant and considering the circumstances from his standpoint to advise those things that will best apply to the situation.

One other very excellent result of visits to the homes of the poor is that it brings us to consider many of those deeper causes underlying poverty or distress, which are back and below the superficial or the first cause.

I understand that there is an investigation being conducted now by the League of Social Service, if I have the name correctly, inquiring into the economic views of the workers in the charitable fields, and I shall be interested in seeing the result of that. I am wondering whether, as a result of longer

experience in dealing with the poor, and in investigating their conditions, it has not led in a good many cases to radical changes in the economic views of a great many people. At any rate it has led us to consider the housing problem, the employment problem, child labor problem, and has led us to identify ourselves with those broader movements looking to the permanent relief of the poor.

Mr. J. H. Glasscoff, Omaha, Neb. — I could cite case after case of imposters but I do not want to take the time. We had in the neighborhood of twelve hundred families on our books on the first of March. At present we have 200. These people are entirely dependent and deserving, I know positively, because I have thoroughly investigated them. But there is one case I want to speak of and that is the people who had contracted to deliver coal to the poor. I made up my mind that I would investigate the quality and quantity. I ordered half a ton in one place, and a ton in another, and I told the people when it came to have it put in clean bins, and that none of it should be used until I got there. I found there were 115 pounds short on the half ton and they delivered 1755 pounds for a ton.

It seems to me that there is some other investigation to be made along other lines.

Mr. Gutridge, St. Paul, Minn. — All the dishonest people are not poor.

Dr. Mary A. Thompson, Portland, Ore. — I was the first woman doctor here and I had a large practice among the poor people. Before I investigated them I fed them. I don't think people can tell the truth very well, if they are not accustomed to tell the truth, on an empty stomach. I think that kindliness of heart is one thing but kindliness of hand is another, and they must go together. My experience has been with women and children and with men that if you show a good heart to them and a good hand they will tell you the truth. Of course we get deceived. But supposing we do. We deceive ourselves sometimes.

A hobo came to my house one day, a very rough looking fellow, and I said to him, after I fed him: "Don't you think now if you understood the case as it is, that you might have saved some money when you were at work?" He said, "Well, it is like this. If I had saved some money when I was at work I would have it now. Well, now, what makes hard times? Rich men save money, and we poor men work and spend our money for our families, and then when the poor man don't have any money to spend it is hard times." There is a vast amount of truth in that.

Mrs. Edw. Rubovits, Chicago. — I only want to ask a question. I want the ladies and gentlemen here who are far wiser than I am, to tell me whether it is necessary to qualify the word charity. This meeting is the first one of the National Conference that I have had the pleasure to attend, and I notice the phrase used "Christian charity." Is that the only charity? Where does the relief of the poor Jews come in?

President Dr. Smith. — I would like to say in answer to Mrs. Rubovits that the first organized charity we ever had in the world was Hebrew charity. Had there been no Hebrew charity there would have been no Christian charity.

Mrs. Rubovits. — I am very much obliged for the explanation.

Dr. Walter Lindley, Los Angeles, California. — I was particularly interested in the statement of the gentleman in regard to the work of the Johns Hopkins Medical College. It seems to me that the work they are doing there with the medical students is the most far reaching work that I have heard of. While it is actually doing work of assisting in the taking care of the poor of the city and of the vicinity, at the time time it is preparing most portant and useful missionaries to go out all over the United States and other countries as the medical students do after they have received their education. That statement of that gentleman drops a thought into the minds, I know, of many of us who are connected with medical institutions, and makes us realize that there are noble ways in which we can occupy and interest the energies, the superabundant energies for which the medical student is so noted throughout the United States, and it is certainly as important to that student to be prepared to-day in that line of work as it is for him to learn to take the pulse and temperature and diagnose the physical disease.

Miss Kate S. Hilliard, Utah. — I never worked in any charity work and this is the first Conference I have been to. I have been quite interested in the discussion on investigation and I would like to ask these investigators if in their investigation they have ever discovered that all the trouble and all the poverty and distress lay in the economic conditions of the country, and would it not be well for this charity and for the members of this Conference to keep that in mind always? The economic system should be changed, and the charity will never amount to anything definitely until that is done.

Mr. Michael Heymann, New Orleans, La. — In regard to Christian and Hebrew Charity I would repeat what I heard in 1897, and which made a deep impression on my mind. "We all agree in our charities; we all agree and believe in the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man."

Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago. — I unfortunately came in a little late, and I am not quite sure about the discussion of the report of the Committee, as to whether it has been discussed or not, but I feel as though the big idea that was expressed in the report of the Committee which the Chairman read is at least entitled to a word of recognition before the meeting adjourns. The fact that Mr. Gutridge's paper came in between the reading of the report and the discussion seems rather to have cut off the consideration of the report, which to me seems to be particularly interesting and suggestive.

The proposition which Mr. Jackson brought forward as to the function of the Charity Organization Societies, to take absolute leadership of the social work of a community and to lay out a program as to what is to be done, is rather the latest step forward that has been presented to this Conference and I imagine that some of our Conference people who have felt that the charity organization societies have been at least forward enough in presenting the value of their work may think that this is going a step too far. Whether it is or not of course it would not be expected of me to say that it was going too far. My own belief, speaking seriously, is that co-operation, which everybody believes in without question, is absolutely useless and valueless and a waste of time and effort without leadership. Co-operation without leadership starts anywhere and leads nowhere. It is just a marking of time, walking back and forth or around in a circle. If we accept co-operation as a necessity in this modern day method that we are trying to bring forward we have got to accept leadership. Somebody has got to take the leadership if leadership there is to be, and if nobody else will take it the Charity Organization Society will go up and accept it.

I picked up the evening paper a while ago here in Portland, and had it in my hand when I arose to speak a while ago, simply to read a paragraph which I happened to discover in it, and which applied at the time I started to arise, but what has been said by one or two speakers since has changed the subject so that it does not seem so applicable. Yet I intended to read this paragraph. A dispatch from New York on the question of investigation.

"July 17. The detectives employed by the Charity Organization Society have caused six beggars, all property owners, to be arraigned in the Harlem Court. It was asserted by the officers that the six prisoners had formed themselves into a sort of beggars trust to do the Italian feast of Our Lady which is to be celebrated in Harlem's Little Italy. All of the prisoners were declared to have bank accounts. One beggar had with him

$588 in bills and a quantity of small coin. Another had a bank book, showing deposits of $1,400. It is alleged that the gang made elaborate plans for their operations in the neighborhood of the leading Italian church. They found the Italians quite liberal during the festival, and were reaping a harvest." Now if people who give first and investigate afterwards, continue in that policy, which they will, I have no doubt, just such things as that will go on because all this gang wanted was to have somebody give first and they didn't care anything about the investigation afterward.

Mr. Edw. T. Devine, New York City. — I wish to say a word about the Chairman's report. I do not think I should have said, myself, that things were in quite as bad shape ten years ago as the report of the Committee would indicate. However, ten years ago the Chairman was in organization work and I was not. Whether the change outlined has taken place in ten or twenty or thirty years is not of so much importance as that there should be a correct statement of what our present program is, and the statement contained in the report of the Committee seems to be an accurate presentation of what the present aims and ideas of the great crowd of societies that we call the Charity Organization Societies, really are at the present time. There may be those, however, who will get a wrong impression from the statement unless it is supplemented by one word of caution. Although it is the task of the workers in the Charity Organization Societies to provide a program and give such leadership as we can in all reform movements, we have a very special task, a very definite task: the particular work of these Societies is, the development and the organization of the charitable activities of the community. We should not allow ourselves to become so much interested in any particular modern social movement, however important that may be, whether it be the prevention of disease, whether it be the prevention of child labor, whether it be the distribution of immigrants, whether it be the improvement of housing, whether it be the arrest of beggars, — that we overlook the larger central fundamental task which is to understand what is being done for the relief of distress in the community, to bring about better co-ordination and co-operation among all agencies, public and private, to fill the cups that are unfilled, to see that the things that need to be done in this charitable field are done, and to bring about for the good of the community a generous co-operation among these charitable agencies. Whether you do that as one Society, always ready to investigate every application for aid and beginning with the family, work back to the charity agencies, or whether you do it as another Society by working with the different Societies, coming not in direct contact with the families themselves, is not

important. The important thing is that charities shall be co-ordinated.

Just to give this Conference the assurance that the real gospel has been given to you in the papers presented, I am tempted to relate to you a little incident. I do this more cheerfully because I see upon the platform four general officers, past or present, of the Associated Charities of the city of St. Paul. About a year ago I was called upon to give an address at the annual meeting of the Associated Charities of St. Paul, and the present President of the National Conference was President of that Association and introduced me to the audience. I said to him just before I got up, "What shall I say?" "Well," he said, "tell them this is the best Charity Organization Society in the United States." I said, "That is a large order, because I have a kind of nominal connection with a Charity Organization Society myself." However, I told them it was the best. It was a pleasant introduction, and it helped along through a rather indifferent address. Last year at the St. Louis Fair I was called upon to act as a member of the Jury of Social Economy, to pass upon the exhibits of the different Charity Organizations of the country. I found the exhibits of the charities of a dozen cities. I asked for the exhibit of the Associated Charities of St. Paul. The young lady in charge of that department showed me a small exhibit. I asked if there wasn't any more. She succeeded in finding an annual report of that Society. I said "Isn't the work exhibited more fully? I have been under the impression that it was a pretty active society." She began to get irritated, and finally she said: "Well, all I can say is that Mr. Devine of New York says that it is the best charity organization that there is."

Mrs. John M. Cushing, Oakland, California. — I would like to ask if our charity investigation and our relief and our helping the poor to find work, can ever be effective while we have outdoor relief, as we have in California.

Dr. Smith. — There is outdoor relief where there is very good charitable work. My own personal view is that outdoor relief ought to be reduced to the lowest terms, and I should say that the lowest terms would be to abolish it altogether. I would abolish altogether public outdoor relief by municipal or county authorities.

Mr. Hastings H. Hart, Chicago. — This is perhaps a departure from the subject before us to-night. I think, as Dr. Smith has already said, or has intimated, at least, that there is out door relief, and out door relief. I used to be very much prejudiced against out door relief. I used to have a great be-

lief in the evil that almost necessarily arises from gifts to the poor from the public purse and the danger of bestowing temporary relief upon people. My conviction in that matter has been shaken a good deal by my observations of the past twenty-two years. I believe that a wise and judicious bestowal of relief where there is a proper understanding between those doing the work, is often exceedingly useful. My conviction has been deepened by my work during the past seven years in caring for dependent children, because I have found a tendency, where out door relief is not given, to break up families unnecessarily. I found that judiciously bestowed out door relief often enables a good mother to keep a family together, and keep her own children, instead of breaking up that family and distributing those children to some other family to bring up. My conviction is that there is no more wicked thing done in the community than to take children from a good mother, who is able to bring them up, in order to avoid the possible evils of out door relief. I am willing to admit that the necessary assistance for that family might be obtained from a private source, but when we get in the rural communities where we have no organized charities it is often very hard to provide the necessary assistance for that family, and I believe it is a legitimate thing for the public officers of the community to provide the necessary means to keep such a family together, and I believe in putting the burden upon the public officers to do it.

That is as far as I am prepared to go this evening in the matter of public out door relief. I think it answers the question whether there are any circumstances in which it is right and proper to give out door relief.

Mr. W. A. Gates, San Francisco, Calif. — Since the question of out door relief in California has been brought up I will say just a word in explanation. There is a great deal of out door relief administered in California, through the Boards of County Supervisors. There is no doubt a large amount of abuse connected with this administration of out door relief, but I do not believe it should be cut off. I believe there are many instances as Dr. Hart has just said, where out door relief is a good thing, and I think we can get a mode of supervision of the administration of out door relief so that it will not have the drawbacks. The County Supervisors of the County of Alameda, of which Oakland is the county seat, and in which Mrs. Cushing resides, have just passed a resolution in which they refer all requests for out door relief to the Associated Charities of Oakland to be investigated. That body is doing good work. Undoubtedly they will show good results. The county of which

Tipton is the county seat, has also been investigating, before granting out door relief, through the Associated Charities, — in fact, the county practically supports the Secretary of Associated Charities, and he investigates every case before relief is granted.

I was asked during last winter to make a short address in Oakland, concerning this question, and I thought I was going to get some very good material, and so I went over to Stockton and collected all the material I could through their investigations. I took the amount which they had paid during the year previous for out door relief after thorough investigation, and I took Alameda County, which had no investigation, and when I came to figure up the number of dollars paid out in proportion to the population I had to drop the comparison because I found that Stockton with its investigation had paid out as much per capita as the County of Alameda had without any investigation, so it was a question of whether that county or the county of Alameda had been abusing the matter, or whether the investigation in the other county had been as thorough as it ought to have been.

There is no question, however, in my mind, that there are many abuses of this out door relief, but I do believe that it can be controlled through some form of investigation. Our communities are scattered. We have many mountain counties in California, and you will be surprised at the number of people in these mountain or mining counties that have come to want, and they are genuine cases of want. The old prospector who came west in search of gold, has spent his life in trying to dig up the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow and he has not got it yet, and he lands in the poor house. In proportion to the population these counties have two or three times the number of poor that the richer agricultural counties have. So this system of out door relief I believe is necessary to a certain extent, but it should be supervised.

Mr. Michael Heymann. — I am very happy to hear from my friend of Chicago about the separation of children from their mother. I am against it. A good mother cannot be replaced, and although I make my living at the head of an orphan asylum I always speak against it. This should be scattered all abroad. When we go home and hear of children being taken from a good mother we should oppose it.

This morning we had a very fine meeting presided over by Judge Lindsey, and the question came up "Who is responsible for a guilty child, especially girls?" Is it the mother or the teacher? It is both, and we all agree that as soon as we have

mothers' meetings in the kindergarten there will be prevented many crimes and misbehaviors.

Again I am very much obliged to my friend for having expressed his ideas that children should not be taken away from their mothers except in exceptional cases, which, thank God, are very few.

Mr. Osgood Putnam, San Francisco. — I would like to refer to the Report, as it seems to indicate that the matter has not been altogether concluded in the minds of the members of the Conference that the work of an Associated Charities should be that of leadership. In San Francisco we certainly have developed in that direction, and the question is already solved there so far as our organization is concerned. Indeed, our activity there is of such a character that it is difficult for us to understand how the Charity Organization Society can fulfill its functions without taking on that of leadership, and that of forming a centre of charitable activity. In one aspect when this conference convenes what is the centre of activity that is here represented? It has always seemed to me that it lies in various Charity Organization Societies. At least our organization in San Francisco is of a character which includes almost all the forms of activity that are here represented. So far as the great municipalities are concerned we need a large organization, where can centre all charitable movements; a place that can become a bureau of information for all charity workers, and that is found most practical, it seems to me, in a large municipality, in a Charity Organization Society, or an Associated Charities.

It seems to me we have had very little to do with the subject of your title, Needy Families, this evening, in this discussion, and needy families, though they constitute one of the things at the base of the Associated Charities movement, that constitutes, so far as we are concerned in San Francisco only one of many of our activities. We have there, too, formed a centre for all the different kinds of municipal charities that are found in a great citl. We have to answer there the various purposes that are required of us through these different kinds of organizations, for instance, the Legislative needs of the whole state. We seem to be called upon to form a centre of activity for all that character of work, for all new legislation in the line of co-operation of the existing organizations, of the creation of new organizations. To refer, then, to what I started to say, it seems to us that the question of leadership is already solved.

At this point Mr. Gutridge was called upon to close the discussion. A summary of his remarks follows:

In regard to the removal of children from their homes, there is a feeling, of course, that child saving societies do a great deal of that sort of thing. Some people I suppose, here, and I know places where it would be true, would be surprised to have Dr. Hart speak of it in that way. The fact is in my experience all the people interested in child saving work are just as positive as Dr. Hart was this evening in their anxiety to hold the home together as far as possible. The general idea that they are interested in smashing up homes all the time is one tha tthe people ought to get out of their heads.

Coming to the question which I had the privilege to present, I should like very much to speak of the delightful spirit manifested by the gentleman from Baltimore in considering what I had presented. Every person in presenting a paper, finds difficulty in bringing out what he has in mind, and the thoughts that I did have and that I found difficulty in presenting, were brought out and enlarged upon considerably by him, and also by Mrs. George. I appreciate their help.

I represented as strongly as I could that investigation is not for the purpose of detecting fraud. It does that incidentally, but that is not its purpose. It is not for the purpose of finding out whether the person wants material relief or not, although it does that incidentally. Now the misfortune about a very great deal of this discussion was that it related to just those things, whether or not material relief ought to be given without first ascertaining whether or not a person is a fraud. I want to get the thought again strongly before this audience that when we are considering the large field of investigation our minds ought to be on something else than upon relief or upon whether or not the person is a fraud; it ought to be with the character of the persons being investigated, and what should be done in order to develop the characteristics of the people we thus come in contact with, so that they may grow out of their dependent condition into a condition of independence. Investigation has to do with that deep serious matter, and not only incidentally with these other things.

I suppose I should reply to the question very pointedly put by the lady from Utah. Every person qualified to investigate does have in view the things that she spoke of, the economic conditions of the country, but I think that it is true that while many of us find in special instances or in many instances, if you like, that that has to do with the cause, yet that it is also true that in the cases of the people that we have to deal with there is something radically wrong with the character, and if we get that right they will be able to very much faster set

right the economic conditions surrounding them. This thing is being done by working upon the personal characters: they are being made stronger.

THE CHAIRMAN:—It has been made perfectly clear to me since coming to Portland that Portland does not understand what investigation means, does not understand what organized charity is striving to do, and it will have been worth very much of the cost of our coming here if it has been possible to have made clear to a few of you even that investigation is thorough, that it is kindly, that it is considerate. Investigation is not to find out about people, but to find out how to help them.

Conference adjourned until Tuesday, July 18, 1905, 10:30 A. M.

FIFTH GENERAL SESSION.

Tuesday Morning, July 18.

The Conference was called to order at 10:30 A. M., President Dr. Smith in the Chair.

Dr. H. A. Tomlinson was presented to the Conference, and read the report of the Committee on Defectives. (Page 334.)

In a prefatory way Dr. Tomlinson said:

When I understood that I was appointed Chairman of this Committee I went at the matter with a good deal of interest and some enthusiasm, recognizing that the other members of the Committee were sufficient in number and sufficiently prominent to be able to get up a program and to submit a report which ought to be interesting and instructive. I therefore entered into active correspondence with the other members of the Committee, and very much to my chagrin heard from only a few of them, and they told me they were not coming. So it fell to my lot to make this report myself. I consulted with the President of the Conference as to what I should do, and he said that I should read the report myself, but to make it short. I have tried to do this, and I have taken for the subject of the report the importance of the careful study of the physical conditions associated with defect in general as the basis for the proper care and treatment of defectives. I have done this for two reasons: because in the first place important modern studies both in development and in physiology have taught us that the physical is the basis of all other activities, and that defect in the physical make up is practically always if not the cause at least a matter

of extreme association with mental defect, and that the progress of education or treatment of the mentally defective is seriously interfered with and sometimes entirely prevented if a recognition of physical conditions is not made the primary condition in the proper care and treatment.

Dr. Tomlinson then took charge of the session as chairman. Dr. Smith was called upon to open the discussion.

Dr. Smith. — This has been a most valuable though concise introduction to a very important department of thought that relates to the defective. I want to emphasize one or two things with respect to the public school suggestion. Some fifteen years ago I was a member of the school board in the city of St. Paul, and I suggested to my associates the importance of having the school children examined with respect to defective eyesight and hearing upon entering the public school. I urged it with all the force I had. They said it would never do in the world. The public would think we were providing a job for some doctor. I think that sentiment has so grown in the last fifteen years that people are coming to see that one of the fundamental things about the organization of public school systems would be an examination in regard to sense defect on the entrance into the lower grades. There is no doubt at all that many and many a child is doomed for a number of years because neither his parents nor his teachers have discovered that he is defective in sight or in hearing, — particularly so in sight. The eye strain can be borne for a long time without breaking down, but it reacts on the nervous organization and warps and weakens it for the whole of life.

Now I want to emphasize the particular part of this paper to which I am now referring. I suppose that in the public schools ten per cent of the children are perverse or stupid, and five per cent are bright, and the rest are common-place. The common-place children can get along very nicely. The fifteen per cent require our attention, the five per cent bright and the ten per cent stupid or perverse, the bright to see whether they have the physical condition necessary, whether it is simply an abnormal and too rapid developing of the organization, for it will very frequently happen that a child will show a great deal of mental activity at the age of 14 and then the tree shed both leaf and fruit and be practically bare for all the rest of his natural life, because into that brief summer time, that first fourteen years, have been crowded all the vitality and all the passion that belonged to the intellectual and spiritual organs.

The insane asylums are recruited from those who are unbalanced, unstable and have too much pressure. Now children are not taught too much in the public schools; they ought to be taught more. Children suffer very much from social life in the school, especially after they reach high school. They do not learn too much, but there is too much mechanism, too much cramming in the organization. The life of the child ought to have more freedom. The State says to those who use the public schools, "Your children must pass a certain examination; they must conform to the demands of the authorities."

It is perfectly marvelous what is required of the public school teacher. They are asked to do so much, and to know so much. I never go into a meeting of school teachers without a feeling of almost infinite pathos. You get together in any state a convention of public school teachers and look them over, — let anyone who is not an expert, even, look them over, any ordinary enlightened layman who has looked into the subject, and you will see there is a larger percentage of neurotic men and women in that company than in any other kind of company that can be gotten together in the State. They are neurotic simply because of the pressure that is put upon them. The school teaching trade is almost as bad upon the mental nature as the preaching trade is upon the moral nature — both trades are very hard upon the character. The school teacher has to be intellectually infallible, and that is a tremendous strain. Of course, the preacher has to be that plus the other sorts of infallibility, and that is an awful strain upon the moral character. So the two professions are tremendously strained.

Mr. Amos W. Butler, Indianapolis, Ind. — There has been progress made in the care and training of the feeble-minded in all of our States, and one after another has taken up this great and important work. I have found, as I have visited schools for feeble-minded children in this country, that there is quite a difference in the grade of children in different institutions. In some it is much higher than in others, and consequently the work being done in some States is very different from what it is in others.

The importance of obtaining all necessary information regarding the physical and mental conditions of each particular child, and also of obtaining all possible information regarding the family history of that child is something that we cannot emphasize too much. In our own institution at Fort Wayne special attention is paid to these features. We have very complete data regarding the physical and mental condition ascertained after an examination by the chief physician and by the

school officer to whom the child is sent for examination, and also a very complete family history of most of the children, some of them running back as far as five generations. It seems to me that in the work of training feeble-minded children we have perhaps the most fascinating phase of the great problem of child study. I know of nothing which is so important to the one who desires to take up school teaching as the wide foundation of child study as a beginning.

We also find in caring for the feeble-minded children as we study their family history, that they not only must be cared for themselves, but that they are only the present generation for whom we are caring, and that there is something back of that. Care, training and education are essential but prevention is the great key note behind it all. Four years ago it was our privilege to secure from the legislature of our State an appropriation for the establishment of a home for feeble-minded women of child bearing age. We have in that institution to-day one hundred and twenty women, one of whom was received not long since accompanied by her four children.

In looking over the history of fifteen feeble-minded women not a great while ago I was impressed by the fact that we knew that ten of these women had been public charges, that they had been the mothers of nineteen children, fifteen of whom had been public charges, and these fifteen children cost in ten years almost $12,000 to the State. We found further that ten of these children were then in the institution and were costing at the rate of $1,100 a year.

The work of educating these and of educating the public and the work that is being done in educating our physicians and specialists for this particular line of work is indeed encouraging.

The Chairman. — Before we go into the discussion of this from the medical aspect I am going to call on Dr. Woods Hutchinson to give us a little light briefly on the influence of the physical upon the mental organization.

Dr. Woods Hutchinson, Redlands, Calif. — It is, of course, quite unnecessary for me to repeat the old and well known phrase "Mens sana in corpore sano." We thoroughly and distinctly understand that a healthy mind without a healthy body is absolutely impossible, but I do not think we thoroughly appreciate the extent to which the brain is absolutely built by the body and supported by the body. The brain is first created by the body and then remains a parlor boarder of that body, and, like the parlor boarder, it is the first one to suffer when supplies begin to run short. The great majority of cases of insanity or disturbances of the brain

are first disturbances of the body beneath it, either of the great organs, or some of the common affections like syphilis, tuberculosis, or abuses, like alcoholism, etc. Many of our mental diseases are due to underlying bodily disease. In fact some of my friends at the head of psychiatric institutions go so far as to say that the brain is never primarily diseased, and that original disease of the brain, except in rare instances of tumor, is almost never known.

In the development of the nervous system, the first sign is the little ganglionic cells which appear in the neighborhood of the mouth. All our physical structure is founded on the alimentary canal. Man is chiefly a stomach and we have to treat him from that point of view. The next thing comes the mouth. It is the position of the mouth that determines the head end and determines the position of the brain. The head end being pushed into danger most frequently we get an eyespot: then we have an eye ganglion which develops into another part of the brain. Our auditory organs then become specialized and we have the ear ganglion. Out of these four ganglia, the jaw brain, the nose brain, the eye brain and the ear brain, grows up the whole of our structure. They are still present in the highly specialized human brain.

Everything is built absolutely upon the physical alimentary needs of the organs. The first thing is the stomach, the next thing is the nervous system, and next come the auditory organs. So that when we are building up the body of the child, in the case of the embryo in interuterine life, if any part of the organism becomes arrested in its development, the portion of the brain that controls the activities of that part becomes arrested in its development. We can tell by examining the brain precisely at what point the arrest of development occurred in the development of the body of the individual.

Everything that we know of the brain indicates that it is built up by the alimentary canal, and the very cells that are built up in this manner are the cells used in after life for the higher purposes of the organs. The one point in the brain which we may regard as the centre of cerebration is the point which is built by and controls the right hand. That point and the point at which the mouth is controlled are close together. The third left centre of the frontal convolution becomes the speech centre and of course without speech definite logical thought is absolutely impossible. The whole matter is built upon an unbreakable physical chain from start to finish and regardless, of course, of the question of the origination of our mental and spiritual faculties, upon which we should probably differ.

The health of the brain, the organ of the soul, if you like, is absolutely dependent upon the health and welfare of the body, so that our care of defective children should be directed to the physical, to develop it in every possible way. Not simply that they should have plenty to eat, plenty to wear and plenty of fresh air, but they should be given every opportunity to develop their play instincts. When the child plays he is building up an area in the brain which will be used later. He is fitting himself for his life work. If I had my choice between a schoolhouse without any play ground, and a play ground without any school house I would take the latter. The animals that play are the only animals that show any degree of intelligence. All work and no play does make Jack a dull boy if boys grow up at all under these circumstances. So that everything that goes to make life healthy and happy is going to build up the future mentality of the race and diminish the number of those who will become defectives in our midst.

Dr. S. E. Smith of Indiana was called on.

Dr. Samuel E. Smith, Easthaven, Ind. — The subject is one of very great importance and one that has been recognized in the hospitals for the insane for some time, and has resulted in a series of examinations which will probably be very interesting to most members of the laity. The examinations, I undertake to say, which are now being made in the hospitals for the insane throughout the country are more complete than are made in any other kind of institutions in the world. I really believe that the recognition of this principle that the foundation, or at least the association with mental disorders and mental defect of some physical disorder has given rise to the most careful supervision and the most thorough care for a longer period of time than is to be found in any other kind of institution. Now these examinations reveal to us sometimes very startling things. Sometimes disorders of the very smallest kind apparently, which, when corrected, result in marvelous results; not always in cures, but in the amelioration of mental disorders which brings very great comfort to the patient and to his friends and to those who are charged with the responsibility of his care. These examinations cannot be too thorough. I think that the hospitals for the insane are pushing the examinations so thoroughly, and with such very great discernment, that results in the matter of the treatment of the insane are going to be very much more satisfactory in the future than they have been in the past. I say these examinations that are set forth by the records in the several hospitals for the insane

throughout the country would be interesting to a great many of you, if you would take the time and opportunity to look them over, and I hope many of you will do it when you visit an institution for the insane. Let me suggest to you, as visitors to these institutions, that you make a point in your inspection to ask for the medical records, the records of examinations of the patients in the hospitals. That will indicate to you the real medical work that is being done, and the results will be surprising to you. It not only has results in the care and treatment of these cases, but leads to the more important question of prevention.

The stupendous question of heredity is always with us, and it is a subject that cannot be given too much consideration. It comes with these examinations of the physical condition of the cases, and if we will do our whole duty to the insane we will cover the ground in both directions.

Dr. W. H. C. Smith, Godfrey, Ill. — I want to emphasize what the gentleman preceding has just stated. His absolutely concise, intelligent and scientific résumé of the conditions attendant upon the proper development of the feeble-minded child is so in accordance with my twenty-five years' experience, that it seems to me I cannot add anything to it.

Dr. William J. G. Dawson, Eldridge, Cal. — We have one institution in California for the care and training of feeble-minded children. We also have, according to the law, to admit epileptics, which is a source of menace in many instances to the feeble-minded. We have no way of segregating them only to a slight extent. We have one building that was supposed to be set apart for mere epileptics, but this is inadequate, as out of our 555 inmates about 140 of them are epileptics. Now, it is not right to mingle epileptics with the feeble minded. There is another point. We have no age limit. I have them there from two and one-half years up to ninety. You can see how hard it is to segregate and to do proper work under such conditions. But we are making many improvements, and this legislature has dealt favorably with us, perhaps as much so as we deserve, owing to the fact that so many of the insane asylums require as much or even more than we do. There are five insane asylums in California, and but one home for feeble minded. I just want to emphasize one point here that I am really trying to broach, and that is the fact that the people should take more interest in the feeble minded as a preventive of crime. If there were more attention paid to the feeble-minded child there would be less crime, because they are made the tool of every person who wants to do some dirty work. Our insane asylums are partly filled by the higher grades, our penitentiaries are partly filled by the higher grades, our

schools of reform and every institution of that kind are partly filled by those people who, if they were sent to institutions of our kind as a preventive of crime, there would be less reason to furnish money for these other institutions.

There is less attention paid, I think, to the homes for feeble minded than there is to the penitentiaries and lunatic asylums. They don't seem to realize that our institution is really a school not to produce crime but to prevent it. Take your penitentiaries, and what are they but schools of crime in nine times out of ten. If you can get the child early enough to get him into an institution of our kind, you can prevent the crime to a great extent.

I want to mention just one thing in regard to the training. We find that the school work is not only helpful but that it develops. The idea of cure has long gone by. You cannot cure a defective. But we can develop them, even from the lowest degree, and that is worth the effort. I want to say here, in connection with the school work, that the Sunday-school work has an ennobling effect, and that it helps to develop perhaps more than the school work.

Dr. Andrew W. Hoisholt, of Stockton, Cal., is called upon to tell what has been done recently in Germany along the lines under discussion.

Dr. Hoisholt. — I did not expect to be called upon to answer that particular question. I was very much pleased to hear Dr. Tomlinson emphasize the importance of the study of the physical nature and of the physical organs of the insane and defectives. This line of work is in the right direction, and is bound to lead to certain results.

With regard to the most modern investigations in Germany in this line I can say that it has been found, as previously reported, that the disease of the physical organs influences the disease of the brain, and that frequently you can, by removing the disease of the physical organs, modify the disease of the brain and sometimes hasten recovery. But while this is so the investigations that have been carried on, the psychological as well as the microscopical work, have led to this result, that the disease of the brain that we call insanity is a primary disease of the brain itself; it is not due to disease in the peripheries, it is not due to disease of the stomach, liver or intestines. While constipation will bring about excitation in the mental troubles, the trouble itself lies in the cortex, in the surface of the brain. Just what it is we do not know as yet. In taking up the study of the body weight, it is perfectly astonishing when you put the curve showing the change in body

weight with the curve showing the change in mental manifestations that you can frequently foretell a coming recovery or improvement in the mental condition, although sometimes it does foretell also an enfeeblement of the mind.

Mr. H. H. Hart, Chicago. — I have watched with very great interest during the past twenty years the advance which has been made in the medical treatment of the insane, and I believe it is fair to say and only just to say that our Chairman to-day has been one of the great factors in the astonishing progress which has been made in this matter in our country during the past twenty years. It is singular, the obstacles that have stood in the way of this improvement of the medical work in our hospitals for insane. The first great obstacle seems to be the difficulty of obtaining the preliminary data which were needed by the superintendents of the insane in order to form a proper diagnosis of the case. The information which accompanied an insane patient when he came into the hands of the superintendent was of the most meagre character, and if you will examine the reports of the insane hospitals up to within the past ten years you will see the paucity of the information which the superintendents and medical officers of our insane hospitals have been able to get.

One thing that I noticed was a strong opposition to the increase of hospital facilities for the treatment of recent cases, and it arose, I think, from this. The friends of the patients and the people at large were very jealous in regard to the treatment of their friends who were inmates of these institutions. The feeling was that the creating of an asylum department was in some way handing over their friends to a hopeless condition, and there was a decided feeling against the establishment of separate departments for separate treatment. I think we are indebted to the State of Wisconsin very largely for breaking away from that and establishing the insane asylum plan, refusing to build any more hospitals and making its hospitals such in deed and in truth, setting an example to the world which has been of great value.

In establishing a hospital ward in an institution they should be willing, not to see how low the per capita can be brought, but how much can be done for the benefit of the patient, regardless of cost, introducing the most improved methods such as massage, the most thoroughly and skillfully trained nurses, and having abundant room for each patient, so as to afford every possible facility.

It was to me, as a layman, a matter of astonishment to find that the abundant and valuable clinical material which existed in all these hospitals was going almost absolutely to waste. There was a time when the State Hospital at Indianapolis was, so far

as I know, the only institution that maintained a pathological laboratory that was worthy of the name, and it is true, I suppose to-day, that when a patient has died the friends of the patient, who has been cared for by the state for years, would then set up a bar and refuse to allow an autopsy to be performed in the interests of science and for the benefit of the other patients in the institutions. But I believe that time is rapidly passing away.

I hold that the most auspicious thing in dealing with the feeble minded and insane is the great advance in the quality and quantity of medical work done in these institutions.

Miss Bertha W. Jacobs, Boston. — I think the question which has most interested me in Dr. Tomlinson's paper was the recognition that he makes of the defective child that is on the border line. I have had twenty-five years' experience in looking after the minor wards of Massachusetts, and that is the child that causes us the most trouble. If a child is really insane, criminal or so feeble minded as to be disgusting, there is a place for it; but if the child is just on the border line, and is personally attractive, they say to us, "Why, that is a nice child. You need to have patience with it. Try it somewhere else, and somebody else can take care of it." This is a great injustice, first to the child; secondly, to the community, and third, to the school teacher who must take that child into her school. Now, this point has been illustrated in our state recently by a very famous case, the case of Grace Darby, who escaped from the Taunton Insane Asylum. This became so burning a public question that it divided the front page of the newspaper with the Japanese-Russian war. She was put in the care of the state, and it was not long before we discovered that the child was abnormal, although not sufficiently so to be put in with the feeble minded children. It was useless for us to do anything with her. Children are boarded in families and attend the public schools, and it only meant from the time that child was five or six years of age constant change from one family to another and one school to another until she had become sufficiently old and sufficiently bad to be turned into the State Industrial School at Lancaster. There they still found the same trouble and after keeping her a while they were compelled to get her transferred to the school for feeble minded children, and from there she was transferred to the institution at Taunton. I do not know, as I am not a physician or specialist in such matters, whether that child could have been helped in her earlier years, but it seems to me that a defective child of that kind ought to have the chance of special oversight and care in its earlier years and possibly it might have been prevented the necessity of placing her in an insane asylum for years. I will say, however, that this class of children springs very largely from immoral parents. This

child was illegitimate, the child of an illegitimate child, whose mother was an immoral woman, and I think that most of these cases spring from illegitimacy.

Dr. Jonas Mayer, Milwaukee. — There is still a further point in regard to this matter which has not been brought out, and that is the biologic aspect of the question of education. I think we can take it as being proven that education does make a definite development of the nerve cell. I think it has been definitely proven that this sort of development in the different areas of the brain is precisely the same whether the activities of the child be mental or physical. In embryonic life the nerve cell is undeveloped. The greater number of stimuli which reach any nerve center, the greater is the development of the dendritic process of the nerves. This development takes place whether this stimulation comes to the motor areas or to the purely higher centers. The throwing out of this dendritic process may produce a secondary development in the higher brain areas or in the purely motor areas. It has been proven conclusively that we can reach the higher centers in a defective child through stimulating the motor areas alone. Everyone who has had the care of defective children will tell you that that is the only way they can bring about any degree of intelligence. Through the motor area you alone get the child to do something, and keep him at it. That is the thing that those in charge of defective children will tell you has been proven. As Dr. Hutchinson has said, the stimuli coming from the movements in the play ground have a definite value. We must not overlook the regular manual training in the schools as a means of developing the higher brain centers. I do not think there is any doubt that muscular movement has definite educational value, just as definite as direct stimulation of the so-called higher centers, and therefore I would, at this time, take the opportunity of making a plea for definite physical training in every school, that it may go hand in hand, and be considered equally valuable with the so-called purely mental training.

Miss Anna S. Hall, Cincinnati, O. — One of the gentlemen used these words: "We are to think not only of the present, but prevention as the keynote." I am not a physician, but I have been a visitor at those institutions. Week before last, when the medical convention met in this city, there was a woman physician who offered a suggestion not new by any means, but she offered it as something that had been presented in the long ago, and I beg the privilege of reading this clipping, taken from the *Oregonian* of a week ago last Sunday. It reads: "The last day's session of the annual convention of the Oregon Homeopathic Medical Society was an interesting one, as one of the best papers of the week's meeting was read and widely discussed. Dr. Ella K.

Dearborn, under the general head of 'Race Improvement,' handled the subject of 'No Danger of Race Suicide,' giving voice to some very pronounced ideas. 'None of my ideas are new,' she said, in the after discussion, 'they have been advanced in various garbs many times, but the world is not yet ready for them. There will come a time when just such theories as I have advanced to-day will be accepted as the only safeguard for improvement of the race.'" She considers that, for the proper production of the human race it is necessary to do away with criminals, degenerates and the insane. She deemed chloroform the best remedy. After weeding these undesirable elements out of the race, she took up the subject of having a state board of examiners for matrimonial candidates in order to insure only healthy and physically perfect progeny. Only those who are able to pass the physical examination with a high standard should be allowed to perpetuate the race, and then she spoke of what should be done otherwise, but I will not speak of that. Of course, the first part of what she proposed would be considered too radical to receive one moment's consideration from any organization, but that second proposition is germane, and that is the physical examination of those who are aspirants for matrimony, and were such a law passed we would not be considering what shall we do for the degenerates or the insane because in one generation there would not be degenerates if they were debarred from matrimony. It seems to me that is a point which should be considered.

Mrs. Glendower Evans, Boston.—The gentleman from California spoke of the number of defectives in reform schools. I think that everyone who has had to do with reform schools will realize that there is a large percentage of inmates who are really not capable of being reformed, because they have no brains. They can do all right if you direct them and you are right at their heels, but send them out into the world and they cannot do all right.

The trouble with reform schools is that after they have had these children in their care for a little while they must go out into the world, and they have nothing else to do with them. This gentleman spoke of the institution in which women were coming, bringing three or four illegitimate children, imposing a great burden on the state. These reform schools have boys and girls in their care who every year are going out into the world simply to be a source of perpetuation of their kind, to bring into the community new burdens. In Massachusetts we have made an advance which seems to us very important.

We now have a specialist, a gentleman who has had a great deal of experience in the public schools in Boston, where he is examining the children in the public schools and arranging to put into special classes those who cannot keep up with the average.

He comes to our schools and examines the boys and girls who are bordering on the defective, and then arranges to get into the school for feeble minded the children who belong there, and in the last six months we have sent some ten children there who otherwise would have gone out into the world. We are making careful examination of the border-land cases, whom public opinion is not ready at present to take care of, intending to follow their histories and so to find out what care should be advised for them.

O. S. STORRS, Denver, Colo. — I have been waiting to hear from Judge Lindsey with reference to this subject. We have been trying for twelve years to have a law passed organizing an institution for the feeble minded and the epileptic children or youth under eighteen years of age. In 1901 we got a makeshift bill passed enabling every county to send its defectives to any institution, the county to pay the expense. Denver county is doing that now. We started it there only a year and a half ago, and it is now starting all over the state, so that we have about thirty-five or forty children in Pueblo, at Dr. Wurt's institution, he having agreed with me that the moment we had five children he would engage a teacher. That is the starting point for Colorado.

I merely want to say one word to emphasize and to show by example the necessity of examination. If Judge Lindsey was here he could tell you of one boy that a year and a half ago was — well, we don't call a boy a criminal out there until he gets to be sixteen or seventeen years of age, but he would swipe anything that he thought he could safely; he was a nuisance in school and was worse than a nuisance out on the street. He was in the Juvenile Court regularly about once in three or four months, and I said to the Judge that I would take him over to Dr. Hopkins, who was a nerve specialist and an authority on all cases of insanity. Within six months that boy began to show improvement in school; where before he was very dirty, he became cleanly; he was studious, and to-day that boy is occupying a valuable position in one of our stores next to the cashier. He calls upon us once or twice a month, and reports to us. Not necessarily, for he has been discharged from the report list. There is one case of examination and treatment showing the effect of body over mind, the result of which was a good pure boy. Now we had one more case, still worse. It was a girl sixteen years of age, feeble minded, single, the mother of three children. Dr. Wurt took that girl and discharged her as hopeless, and when Dr. Wurt discharged a case as hopeless we always thought it was hopeless up until that time. She was brought down to the county hospital, held there, tried for insanity, convicted, committed to the

insane asylum. There were points about that girl that satisfied some of us that she could be helped. She was helped. Before I left home, about two weeks ago, I obtained transportation for that girl, as having been released from our insane hospital after two years' treatment. Another case of matter over mind; not mind over matter.

Mrs. Florence Kelley, New York. — I want to call attention to the very cheering experiment which the City of New York is making in the direction of scrutinizing its public school children. During the last six months every child in a public school on Manhattan Island has had its eyes examined by the best specialists who can be commanded by the Board of Health of Greater New York. Every child in the public schools in the whole of Greater New York is subjected to a medical examination of the senses, their ability to register normal sense impressions. A brief examination of the eyes, nose and mouth, and the responsiveness to touch is made by a physician, and children who appear to the physician, or in the regular school work, to be defective are afterward subjected to a more minute examination. In addition to this children who are troublesome in their classes, grossly troublesome, may, in the discretion of the principal, be put into special classes of not more than twenty children in the care of one teacher. Then those troublesome children are carefully looked after by the teacher, the principal, the school physician and the school nurse, with a view to finding out exactly what is the trouble with the individual child. This has been done only on a sadly small scale so far and only very recently. Dr. Maxwell, the superintendent of public schools, is responsible for the statement that no other great city of modern civilization has done so little for its children in the way of looking after the physical condition of the individual child and providing a special class, but so far as I know no other city in America has attacked so comprehensively the problem of having each individual child, normal and abnormal, kept under medical supervision throughout the entire time that it is in the schools of the city. I think that is a step in the right direction.

Mr. Alexander Johnson. — You have already heard from two Indiana men in this discussion, and they said precisely what I think, namely, that the physical condition of mental defectives is of vital importance.

The superintendent of schools in the City of Fort Wayne, at a county meeting of teachers told them not to think of leaving the city without visiting the school for feeble minded children because they would find an immense amount of help in primary work if they would study what the school for feeble minded is doing. Methods absolutely essential with feeble minded children are often

useful if not essential in the treatment of ordinary pupils. We learn to understand the normal by studying the abnormal. Careful study with absolute accuracy of the physical condition of the child at the beginning and then training to develop that physical condition to as high a plane as possible, and then the care and control of the feeble minded person, made as near normal as possible, for the rest of his or her natural life. That is what is to be done with the defectives. Build them up as high as you can, keep them where they are safe and will be industrious, and half of them, perhaps more than that, may be entirely self-supporting and no burden upon the tax-payer at all. Mr. Butler can tell you how many are earning their own support in a happy and pleasant way, much more happy because they are so useful, in the Indiana institution. That is not true for the insane, or of any other class of defectives, but of the feeble minded it is especially true that they ought not to be a large burden. Give them land enough, give them the right kind of control, and they can be made happy, useful citizens in their little world of the institution, where nothing is expected of them more than they can give, where many of them can do as much as their cheap and simple life costs the state. One-third of a full man's work is enough to pay for one man's keep. A feeble-minded laborer, therefore, who does one-third of a full man's work is self-supporting, because he is earning all it costs to keep him with simplicity, with his feet near the ground; not in palaces, but in plain, simple homes, where he is far, far happier than he is in marble halls. The simple minded person is not happy in marble halls; he wants plain, simple surroundings. The thought is that it is not only necessary to study them and teach them and do all we can with them, but having done that they shall be supervised as long as they live, so that the next generation shall not have such cases as Mr. Butler spoke of, one feeble minded woman with four children coming to the state institution as inmates for the rest of their lives.

The Chairman. — If there is no further general discussion of the subject, the Chair would like to take advantage of its prerogative to say a few words in conclusion. I am very glad that what has been said so far confirms the statements which were necessarily made in the report. I was disappointed, however, that more was not said from the standpoint of what had been found out as the result of the physical study of the individual defective, and what had been discovered as to the relation between these physical defects and the necessary impairment of function in the bodily organs as influencing the mental development of the defective, or as influencing the mental restoration of the unstable. It seems to me that if we could give to such bodies as this, and through them to the general public, a number of concrete

examples of what has been the effect of this method of work we might do a great deal toward stimulating that interest for which I asked in my paper and the change of the mental attitude of the public toward our institutions and their inmates. I was not surprised, but I was disappointed when I heard one of the gentlemen who spoke illustrate that mediæval mental attitude of which I spoke in my paper when he referred to a man being tried and convicted of insanity. We cannot get the criminal idea out of people's minds somehow. They do not look upon the patient as an insane man, but as a criminal, and somehow it seems to be impossible to change that mental attitude. I said in my paper that people have knowledge which they do not use when they think or act upon a subject. What I maintain and believe from my experience is that it is only through the help of the general public, and their more intelligent interest in these people, that we are able to change our institutions into hospitals in fact, where people may go just as they would to a general hospital when they would and leave when they would, so that they will come under treatment early, and when they recognize the fact that they are going there because they are ill and not because they are unsocial human beings or a danger to the community; that going there, they will find people prepared and willing and with all possible facilities for the careful investigation of their condition, their physical condition, because, as I said, the mind is not an entity and we cannot treat it directly — we must treat it through the body. When we can bring about these conditions, and when our institutions have a large enough medical staff and a sufficient corps of nurses, proper room and facilities for medical work such as is had in general hospitals as a matter of course, we shall eliminate the conditions which make these people a burden upon and a danger to the community. When our schools for the feeble minded have become really hospitals in the literal sense of the word, and when it is recognized as I said in my paper that medical work is constituted in everything that is done for the physical and mental welfare of the individual, these people will not only be less numerous on account of the preventive measures, but those who do require permanent care and treatment will be made of sufficient intelligence and capacity that they may be able to earn their own living and maintain their self-respect.

Mr. H. H. Hart, Chicago. — I desire to congratulate Dr. Tomlinson and his committee upon this very interesting program. It has been to me a very great surprise in past conferences, first that the conference was not more interested in this subject, and second that men engaged in this work did not realize the opportunity that they have to get into touch with the laity and instruct us on the subject. When a man like Dr. Tomlinson gives the

time and study that has been necessary for this admirable program I think we ought to congratulate ourselves.

Conference adjourns until 8 P. M.

SIXTH GENERAL SESSION.

Tuesday Evening, July 18, 1905.

The Conference was called to order by the President, who introduced Mr. Charles D. Hilles, Superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum, Chairman of the Committee on Children, who presided over the evening's meeting.

It was moved, seconded and carried, that a telegram be sent to the Treasurer, Mr. John G. Phelps Stokes, congratulating him upon his marriage, and extending to himself and wife the best wishes of the Conference.

Mr. Hilles read the report of the Committee, in which he treated upon "Recent phases of Child Saving Work." (Page 94.)

Mr. George Vaux, Jr., of Philadelphia, then read a paper on the subject of Aesthetic surroundings. (Page 120.)

The Chairman then presented Mrs. Glendower Evans, of Boston, of whose remarks the following is a summary:

MRS. GLENDOWER EVANS. — In the discussions that have taken place in regard to children in this conference, the idea of keeping children out of institutions has been brought forth. There are a lot of children in the world who ought to go into an institution. After their parents have done all they can to inspire those children and have failed, those children will have to go to an institution. That being so, the attention must be centered on making that institution the place to give that child what its home has failed to give it. If the institution is to do very much with the child in supplying what its home had failed to give it, it would seem as if a year or two was the shortest time in which the institution could supply very much, and yet for the young children we find in Massachusetts that the time can be very much shortened.

I have been particularly interested in experiments made in Massachusetts in the direction of shortening very materially, almost eliminating, the period of institution training for children. Notwithstanding all we have done to keep children out of institu-

tions, nevertheless very little boys ten to fifteen years of age come in very considerable number to our reform school. We send them there after being put on probation once or twice or thrice, and after the State Board of Charity have taken them and treated them as neglected children. When a child comes to the reform school, the reform school is going to do what it can in the way of educating him. We put him on an electric car and send him to a cottage some seven miles away from the main institution, with a nice, kind woman in charge of it, and with a group of fifteen to twenty-five boys. That is all that is necessary in the whole state of Massachusetts for the boys under thirteen years of age who are convicted of criminal offenses. These boys are kept in that school from one to four months, as a rule. They are kept there long enough to learn what they are like, to teach them the rudiments of good manners so as to be civilized enough to live in a decent family. Then those little fellows, eleven, twelve and thirteen years of age, are placed out in families and treated in the way all neglected children are treated in Massachusetts. They are maintained in the farm-house, with simple farm-house appliances, at small expense; and those who have decent homes, after a year or two, go back to their fathers and mothers. One-half of these children go out into the world never knowing that they have been in a reform school. If they are returned to the Lyman school, they are treated as if they have been there for the first time. At the main body of the institution they are detained for a year or two, and are taught the things which the reform schools throughout the land are now teaching — industrial training, gymnastics, and the regular reform school curriculum. When I visit other states and go to the reform schools, I always see little boys who in Massachusetts we put upon their feet in the world without keeping them in an institution at all. All the attention through the land is being turned to the idea of keeping children out of institutions, and all the different states have taken up the idea. I want to submit that after Judge Lindsey and all the other good judges in the land give them probation and keep them out of the reform schools, and after the children have finally gotten into an institution, I want to plead for the idea that the little ones largely need a good home. They have had to go to the reform school not because they were so bad they could not live in the world, but because they had no fathers and mothers to correct them, and, after they have been kept in an institution for a very short period, keeping them clean and teaching them how to eat and good manners, they may be placed in a farm-house.

I wish these ladies and gentlemen, when they go back to their states and look over their reform schools, would notice whether there are not many children there who could be placed in a repu-

table home, and limit it at that end, just as Judge Lindsey and the others are limiting it at the other end.

This was followed by an address by Mr. H. H. Hart, of Chicago, on "The Juvenile Reformatory of the XXth Century." (Page 101.)

Mrs. S. Murray Shipley was requested to open the discussion.

Mrs. Shipley. — This interesting paper that we have just heard seems to be of infinite importance. In Philadelphia the question arose, What shall we do with the children of the sixty thousand immigrants that were landing, to keep them out of the reformatory institutions. They rushed from our school rooms, very tired of discipline, and it occurred to some to go and get one of our vacant market houses, which had been favorably suggested because it had been so cleared of all the débris of the marketing that the children could go in and have a veritable time of fun. It was to keep up the idea of anointing them with the oil of gladness that they should be really happy in coming out of the school room. This need was met by taking them, by their own consent, into a fine large room where they could have their games somewhat arranged for them. Some of the school teachers were invited in to discipline them, not to arrange for them, but to join in a game, and some of the sisters from our Catholic institutions, some of the teachers from the Jewish schools, that all might feel perfectly at home. It was a very beautiful thing and a very amusing thing to see these children rushing from the public school room into this great market house. Some of the little girls actually wanted to sit down and learn to darn, and the boys were asked if, on Saturday afternoons, they would like to learn to sew, and there were forty-three little boys who said "Yes, we mean to be tailors," and it was great fun to watch them. They arranged their little legs just as systematically as if they were going to have a great deal of fun, and they were given some bright pieces of cloth. But the great idea was to give them active fun, and they had it.

Now, if in all our great cities we could have play-houses for the children, I believe it would help greatly to keep them out of trouble. They should be taught to be fair in their games. Is it the great sin or the education about them that teaches them little tricks? They should be taught that we are going to have honor in their dealings with each other. It has been a very successful plan, though it lacked leadership. That is what we must have. Some of these ladies must go out as leaders in it, and be

willing to give a little time after four o'clock, so that they shall have a real jolly time.

We had a superintendent of a school to come to show them some moving pictures, and they began to say, "Oh!" and it was suggested that the gentleman would have to stop talking, and one little fellow looked up and said, "We don't want to hear him talk," and then we said they should not, because they came there for fun. I believe it would be fruitful of very good results if this great idea of happiness for these little children could be brought forward. They have no fun at home; the father and the mother want them to run errands, and they are taken right into the saloon to buy the quart of beer. It seems as if we must take care of the foreign children, but we must be careful also about giving fun to our own children and in regulating them, that they never get into these institutions.

MICHEL HEYMAN, New Orleans, La. — Last year I was invited to speak before the National Jewish Charity meeting, in New York, and, being the Chairman of the Orphan Asylum Section, I read a paper which I do not want to read here, but in which I said that asylums, being a necessary evil, we have to improve them as much as we can and not have any orphan asylums in the cities. Bring them out. Buy a few hundred acres of ground, have the cottage plan, and give them a good common school education. Teach the use of tools, and raise them as farmers or mechanics.

My friend Hart said, just now, "It is no use to teach the children all that is necessary as a farmer; they will return to the city, anyhow." I differ with him. I think if we all make efforts to raise the children in the country, in such a manner as he described, they will stay there. I say we must raise our little dependent children as farmers or mechanics, and fight this great evil here and in Europe, of the increase which we see in the cities in numbers and in vice and crime. I am not in favor of having any institution in the cities, neither for children nor for delinquents, and the time will come, I hope, when we will see the realization of this idea.

MR. O. K. CUSHING, San Francisco. — The admirable paper gives me an opportunity to say something which I did not have an opportunity to say when that subject was under discussion at a former meeting.

The author of that paper has pointed out with great clearness the danger of taking new steps into unexplored territory in advancing the work of the Juvenile Court, and the wisdom of being conservative in that respect. I want to add to that a note of warning regarding the action of the Judge of the Juvenile Court. The Judge of the Juvenile Court is vested with a large

discretion under the Juvenile Court law, but he must be careful while he exercises that discretion. One of the gentlemen who spoke of that subject the other evening led some of us to believe that it was thought proper in some cases, in dealing with a child, to exceed the jurisdiction confided by law to that court. I say that under no circumstances can that be proper. The institutions that have been built up by a civilization of hundreds of years will not tolerate that sort of thing, and the Judge or the court who in dealing with the individual case oversteps the bounds of right and liberty that have been laid down for hundreds of years is doing a dangerous thing. The Juvenile Court cannot afford to make any mistakes of that kind. It may be suggested that this is a lawyer's view, and the answer to that is to me that the objectors to steps of that kind will have their objection passed upon by lawyers. If anyone objects to the jurisdiction of the Juvenile Court, the question will come up before a Judge who will measure it by the rules of law, and if it is found that the Juvenile Court Judges here and there are apt to overstep the bounds of their jurisdiction, just so far will the work of the Juvenile Court be discredited and the best friend of the Juvenile Court should ever stand to see that the constitutional limitations provided in our state and national constitutions are never overstepped in handling the children under its care.

I have had much to do with the Juvenile Court law in a general way. I did most of the drafting of the law now in effect in the State of California, and I have watched the proceedings of these courts with great interest through the country. None will go further than I in estimating the value of these courts or in appreciating the wonderful work they have done, but I cannot refrain from giving this note of warning.

Hon. Julian W. Mack, Chicago. — I had hoped to hear what has now been said stated the other night in the Juvenile Court meeting. Had I not been one of the speakers that evening, and exhausted my time, I should have said exactly the same thing. We are bred to a spirit of law, and those of us who are appointed to uphold that law must be exceedingly careful that what we are applying is not our own judgment, but the judgment of the law, and that we are acting within the bounds laid down in the law.

I want to say further, that the Juvenile Court, although six years in existence, is still in an experimental stage; that the Juvenile Court has by no means produced, and is not going to produce, the millennium. Too much must not be expected of it. I say it is in the experimental stage, because in the State of Illinois, in which it was first established, the constitutionality of the underlying principle of the law is going to be tested for the first time next October. The matter is now in the hands of our Supreme

Court, and the question will be whether the Juvenile Court is truly a Court of Chancery or whether it is a subterfuge to get around the criminal law, and therefore unconstitutional, and the surest way to have it declared unconstitutional is to overstep the limitations that the constitution places upon the judge.

Mr. Fred L. Paddelford, Golden, Col. — The Colorado institution is not a reformatory; it is an industrial school. Reform schools are out of date, but industrial schools are of a different kind. Industrial schools, if they are true to their name, are places where boys may become good citizens and take their places in the world and get those benefits which they are deprived of, perhaps, on account of their having come from poor homes or because the public schools fail to provide a place where they may learn such trades as they would have learned when some of the older persons here were boys and girls, as apprentices. I believe that the fact that the old apprenticeship has passed away in this country has done a great deal to make more delinquents among the young. I know that a great many boys have gone to Judge Lindsey, in Denver, and asked to be sent out to our industrial school. Some of them are learning to be electricians, and some are learning other things. It is a fact that we have now calls for six or seven printers, and we have none who are able to go out and supply these places, throughout the State of Colorado. One of our boys came to our school and learned to be a printer, and a good one. He also learned wood engraving. Last month he went out to Denver, went into a shop and asked for a position, and the owner of the place asked him where he learned his trade. He said at the industrial school. The proprietor said, "Come in, and hang up your hat. I had a boy from there, and he knew how to do something besides running the press and setting type." The institution teaches them all branches of the work, and they are in demand. I do not believe that a boy should be turned out of an industrial school until he becomes a capable workman. I do not believe that the atmosphere of an institution harms a boy. It is just a prejudice that has grown up because of the old conditions that surrounded reform schools, that have been handed down from one generation to another, that make it difficult for some boys in some places, who have been in these institutions, to make their way honestly and honorably. I wish everyone would drop the word reform school where it could be possible to do so.

Mr. S. J. Hathaway, Marietta, O. — I wish to say a few words in regard to this matter of child saving. The discussion has drifted largely into the channel of delinquent children. I represent the Ohio system of child saving. It has been mentioned here to-night that the first law placed upon any statute book of any of the states where the state acknowledged its responsibility

for dependent children was the law of 1866. I want here to lay a wreath to the memory of the woman who founded the Children's Home of Ohio in 1857, Catherine Fay. Coming from Indian Territory, where she had been a missionary, having experience as to the suffering of children who were homeless, she resolved to dedicate herself and her fortune to the founding of an institution for the saving of homeless children, primarily to take the children from the poor-house in the County of Washington, where she lived. She formed, in 1857, the institution which she was pleased to call the Children's Home. Then she went to the County Commissioners and secured from them their consent to place the children that were in the infirmary in that institution. By solicitation, she secured the money and the supplies to carry on that institution with what the county authorities gave her. There was no law that the commissioners should give her a cent, so in the year 1866, after two years' effort on her part, she succeeded in inducing the legislature to pass a law which enabled any county in the state to take the children from an infirmary and place them in a children's home. We have laid wreaths upon the memory of Florence Nightingale, also we have honored Clara Barton; but what shall we do for the woman who started this work, that has now spread to nearly every state in the Union, that is, the work of taking children from infirmaries and placing them in families or institutions where they can live lives of usefulness?

The Ohio system is spoken of as the County Home. Do not for a minute suppose that the institutions of Ohio, founded under its beneficent law, are old-style orphanages. Not by any means. They are the turning points of children from the slums to homes in private families. We keep them there long enough so that they shall learn some manners, that, if they have contagious sore eyes, that they shall be cured and that they shall be rendered fit to go into a family. The people who take our children are our patrons. Would it be right that we should send these children with contagious sore eyes into a family, to inoculate the whole family? The institution, the way we conduct it in Ohio, is merely the turning point in the child's life. A good family is the ideal institution. We lack a law that provides for visiting agents to place these children in families, and when we get that law then we will have what will be a complete system.

Mr. Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield, N. J. — I believe it is a fact that nine-tenths of the problem of reformatories is education, and yet I know and you know of reformatories which are paying smaller salaries to their teachers than in the lowest grades of the public schools. They are not in a position to compete with the public schools for other teachers, while their

work from an educational standpoint requires higher qualifications and the coping with much greater difficulties. I believe the time has come when reformatories, if not directly under the jurisdiction of the State Board of Education, should in every state be under its supervision. I throw that out as a suggestion, and I know that a good many will regard it as heresy.

GEORGE C. TURNER, San Francisco, Cal. — Our Chairman in his excellent paper has stated the necessity for the nurture and nourishment of the soul of the child. Mr. Hart in his remarks has advocated the having of a religious instructor in each institution to give instruction in religion. Now this is right and proper, for when the state takes the child from the parent the state must perform the parent's duties, and our constitution recognizes that it is the duty of the parent to educate the child in religion. I would go a step further than the position taken by Mr. Hart, and that is no one man can give adequate religious instruction to three or four or five hundred boys and girls. You and I do not get our religious ideas from our pastor; we get them from our mother and from our father, and so the house mothers and the house fathers, or the family managers, or whatever you call them, must be men and women of Christian character and ability to instruct not only by precept but by example.

Adjourned until Wednesday, July 19, 1905, 10:30 A. M.

SEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Wednesday Morning, July 19.

The Seventh General Session was called to order at 10:30 A. M., by the President.

Mr. Strong, Chairman of the Local Committee called attention to the invitation of the Local Committee to their reception at the Art Museum this afternoon.

The Committee on Time and Place reported invitations received from Denver, Chicago, Richmond, Salt Lake City, Minneapolis and Philadelphia. The Committee report unanimously in favor of Philadelphia for the place, the Executive Committee, upon consultation with the Local Committee, to fix the date.

Mr. Devine, New York, moved that the Secretary be instructed to cast the ballot of the Conference in favor of accept-

ing the recommendation of the Committee of Philadelphia as the place for the next Convention.

Mr. Gutridge, St. Paul, on behalf of the delegates from Minnesota, seconded the motion.

Mr. Storrs, Denver, supported the motion in the name of Denver.

Motion put to vote and unanimously carried.

Ballot cast by the Secretary in favor of Philadelphia.

THE PRESIDENT. — The report of the Committee on Criminals will be read by title only. The exercises of the morning will consist of two addresses, one by Dr. Graham Taylor, of Chicago, on "Labor and Charity," and the other by Judge Hallam, of the District Court of Minnesota, on "Needed Reforms in Criminal Procedure." The latter only will be open for discussion.

Dr. Taylor delivered his address. (Page 458.)

Judge Hallam's address was then delivered. (Page 300.)

The discussion of Judge Hallam's address was opened by Judge Brown, of Salt Lake City.

HON. WILLIS BROWN, Salt Lake City. — Of all the criminals it seems to me that the one who commits a crime against childhood is the worst. I wish to speak of the crime against childhood by the men and women of our communities. I was reminded to speak of this because of the speaker's remarks regarding the right of appeal, because I have been misunderstood in regard to our court. We have always had laws in Utah for the punishment of those who commit crimes against children. We have a law against those who are cruel to children, who sell liquor to minors, etc. They have the right to trial by jury and the right to employ a lawyer, and due process of law, but in the Juvenile Court which we have established, and of which there is but one other in the United States so recognized by the state as a separate Juvenile Court, I would not prostitute that court to a trial by jury, and when the father who beats a girl or the saloon keeper who sells to the boy comes in our court he understands perfectly well that if he wants due process of law that we stand ready to make out a complaint charging him with violation of the state law for the sale of liquor to minors, and he can hire his attorney and go to the police court and to the district court, and he can appeal all he wants to. But he comes into our court not charged with violation of this law but with being an adult delin-

quent, and he understands and chooses whether he will be an adult delinquent or whether he will come with his lawyer and let us prove our case before the other court, and when he says he will become an adult delinquent, that he whipped his daughter and that he knows he did and that he don't care for a lawyer, and when I say thirty days in jail he has no appeal and if I said $2.50 fine he would not want any appeal.

I had thought of perhaps being a little easy with the law, and when I heard of other judges who had legal training shrinking or stretching it I fully intended to go back to Salt Lake City and doing the same thing; for example, the very effective way in which the age limit in Chicago is overcome in sending the children to Mrs. Amigh. But, after the speeches of last night, I will not do this. I will not shrink the law or stretch the law, or permit a trial by jury in our Juvenile Court.

Mr. George S. Wilson, Washington, D. C. — I beg to be excused, as a layman, for always butting into these professional matters, but really after all, looked at from the standpoint of any one profession, most of us are laymen or laywomen, and it is really important that we should understand these things if you expect our co-operation. I think the laity feel as the speaker indicated, that the failure and the delay of the criminal law in many cases in this country is a very deplorable thing. I think there is hardly any doubt about it. I just want to mention one thing that I have never been quite able to understand, and I have asked several legal minds to try to enlighten me and yet I am in the dark. It is with regard to procedure in the criminal courts; that is, with reference to the ethics of the legal profession. As I understand it, the ethics of that profession require the members of the profession, while protecting the rights of their clients, not to obstruct the courts of justice. Now, I feel very confident that the laity are convinced that the members of the profession do not live up to that standard. Anyone who has been in a criminal court and watched the progress of a criminal trial of any note cannot help but feel that the action of the attorney for the defense in criminal cases goes far beyond the effort to protect his client in the rights supposed to be guaranteed to him under the law. Within very recent times I had occasion to watch, with some interest, the prosecution of a case of graft. One of the attorneys for the defense was no less distinguished a person than an ex-member of the cabinet of the President of the United States, and I am very confident that no body of laymen of average intelligence who had paid some considerable attention to that trial could have believed that the course of the attorney in that case was to see that the truth was revealed and that justice was done and no more. I think I am safe in saying that in general the

action of the profession in such cases is to lead the laity at least to believe that it is the purpose of the attorney for the defense to free his client, whether guilty or innocent, and in endeavoring to do that he will certainly resort to every technicality allowed under the law to suppress the truth, and, it would seem to us, to obstruct the course of justice.

Mr. Osgood Putnam, San Francisco. — I agree with the speaker last upon the stand in regard to what he said. I agree with the principal speaker who criticised our laws. The chief difficulty, in my opinion, lies with the people, for after all public opinion is reflected in the jury. The jury is made up of the common people. In the first place, good citizens shirk jury duty, and leave the juries to those who profit by them. In the second place, while the jury as formed reflects public opinion, the chief miscarriages of justice are in the verdicts of the jury.

The Chairman. — I should like to hear some one cover one point, and that is the sweatbox. The administration of the law is not only in the hands of the bench, but it is also in the hands of the officers of the court; The sheriffs and chiefs of police are accustomed to have ways of their own to accomplish ends of justice, and put pressure upon prisoners accused of crime to secure information which can afterwards be used in their conviction. I should like to hear from Superintendent Randall upon the subject of the sweatbox.

Frank L. Randall, St. Cloud, Minn. — The sweatbox is objected to as inquisitorial, and those who object to it, as a rule, are persons guilty of offenses against the criminal law. I read a paper this morning touching somewhat upon requiring a full disclosure after a person has been convicted and committed to a penal institution. As I understand it, this question of the Chair would not apply to that. This is an inquiry into the questions addressed to a person who is under suspicion, with the purpose of using what admissions he may make against him subsequently. If there is coercion used, if there are threats used, if there are mean advantages taken, the practice is wrong, of course, because coercion or force or intimidation are always wrong. But I rather like the plan that they have in one of the countries of Europe of charging in an indictment all of the facts necessary to be established in order to secure a conviction and permitting the person called upon to plead to or deny or admit as many of them as he pleases; that is, deny as many as he will, or admit as many as he will, to save the difficulty of proving these little formal matters that sometimes are extremely embarrassing to the prosecuting attorney to establish. I speak of this because I happen to be a member of the bar of twenty years' standing and have occupied the position of prosecuting officer of a county of some consid-

erable size, containing a city of some importance. The sweatbox, so-called, the people have a prejudice against, because they think it is not fair play and it is not fair play very often; it is sometimes managed and controlled by brow-beating people. But the man who objects to it is usually, Mr. Chairman, a guilty man. As a matter of fact, with five or six years' experience dealing with convicted people, perhaps having interviews with nine hundred, we will say, who have been convicted of felony, I do not know of any case in which the person convicted was not guilty except one. There was one case of the conviction of an apparently insane person. The crime had been committed against a girl, and it was charged that she was under the age of sixteen. The girl was not of good family, her mother made a mistake as to the age of her birth, and, as a matter of fact, she was a few weeks over sixteen at the time. The difficulty with the administration of the criminal law usually is the escape of the guilty.

Judge Lindsey, Denver. — There is one suggestion of Judge Hallam's which I think is a very important one. The Judge rather bemoaned the fact that the grand jury system was being abolished in some of the states. I have had some experience in our own state along that line. The grand jury system is practically abolished in Colorado, and the district attorneys have power to file informations. Under our law that power is exclusively in the district attorney. He can file a case or not file it, and when he files it he can dismiss it, and no living soul has anything to say except that one man. I may be prejudiced against district attorneys. I have been through some political troubles in Colorado, and four or five years ago I remember I found that where girls were found in wine-rooms and brought in, when we tried to get the proprietors brought in they were not brought, and the result was they could not be prosecuted. Why? Because of this tremendous power in the hands of one man. Should we not divide this power, so that any citizen or any member of the bar, under some restriction or supervision of the court, would have the right to file information for the prosecution of crime where the district attorney fails in his duty? Last winter we introduced a bill in the legislature providing that probation officers appointed by the court should have the right to file complaints against men and women who were violating the laws for the protection of children. The result would be, if a girl went to a wine-room and the district attorney failed to file the information, or if a boy went to a gambling house and the district attorney was tied up with the gamblers, as he is in most cities of the country, the probation officer may file that complaint against the gambler. That was the test of this awful power, because the moment that bill was introduced all the gamblers and saloon men

came together, and they made one assault after another on that bill.

The point I want to make in closing is that, if we want to abolish the grand jury system in this country and if this power of filing information is to be in one man, let us guard against this awful power by adjusting it in some way so as not to make him the supreme judge.

Hon. John Brindley, Lacrosse, Wis. — I do not consider this question of a grand jury a matter of a great deal of importance, because while I think in states that retain the grand jury system things work very well, yet it all seemed to me a little out of place to charge something up against states which have abolished the grand jury system unless we note how it worked. I have had experience for eight years as Judge of a Court of Criminal Jurisdiction and seven years as prosecuting attorney in the State of Wisconsin and over twenty-five years of practice of the law in that state, and while we may call the grand jury if the Judge so orders in all of my experience I never have seen a grand jury or known a grand jury to be called in the county and in the part of the state in which I live. Now, it is simply this: The district attorney has no more right to commence a criminal proceeding than any other person. Anybody may swear out the complaint before a magistrate, and when the complaint is sworn out the man is brought there and he is confronted with his witnesses and the magistrate simply determines whether or not he shall be held for trial. We like it better than the grand jury system, for the reason that if a man is accused of crime he is brought into court, where he may present his own testimony and where he may hear the testimony against him, while, in the case of the grand jury, a man may be accused and witnesses examined against him, without him knowing that he is under suspicion.

I agree with the gentleman who has spoken, that very few if any object to the sweatbox unless they are guilty, but under the law in case there has been any coercion, in case there has been the slightest promise — if a man goes to another and says "If you will tell this I will do the best I can before the Judge for you; I will try to make it easier," that evidence cannot be introduced. Nothing can be introduced as to what the man has said when put in a sweatbox, provided the slightest effort has been used on the part of the police officer to intimidate him or make him any promise at all. There is considerable prejudice among the people in general against the sweatbox system, which never ought to exist.

Mrs. Alice L. Park, San Francisco, Cal. — There is one subject that I think ought to come up before the general session of this conference. It happens that the conference is meeting

in one of the states that has adopted a new law in favor of the whipping-post. A man was whipped for wife beating a little while before this conference came into session, and the day this conference met there was an editorial in the local paper advocating the whipping-post in a very thoughtless and puerile sort of manner. I thought that any reference to it here would be reported in the local paper and that there might be some remarks made here by people who know more about it than the local paper apparently did.

Mr. Timothy Nicholson, Richmond, Ind. — We ought in our respective communities to have a large interest in moulding public sentiment, and the gentleman's reference to technicalities in criminal cases by which guilty men escape was a very interesting one. Several years ago, in our court, I was a regular juror, but on the criminal case in hand I was excused, but I heard the trial and afterwards the jury retired and the court had a little social time, and I asked the Judge and the attorneys if they would be willing that I should characterize the performance as I saw it. They said yes. I replied, "How not to do it."

Judge Hallam, being called upon to close the discussion, said he would add nothing, preferring to leave the matter as it was.

Mr. O. K. Cushing, San Francisco. — I just want to add one word of emphasis to something that Judge Hallam has expressed in language better than I have at my command. The burden of responsibility for failure to properly enforce the laws that are written upon our statute books lies upon the shoulders of all the people of the commonwealth, men and women alike. In this state, and in most of the states, men only sit on the juries, but the community is made up of women equally with men and the enforcement of the laws just as much as the care of the poor and these other matters that this conference has been gathered to discuss is a matter of public sentiment. We are the keepers of the people's faith. When I say we I mean the people in the commonwealth, and if there are defects in our laws it lies with us to remedy them. Each one of us, in his own little sphere, can do something in that respect by ever speaking, complaining and raising his voice against those so-called "law's delays." It is the purpose of this conference to bring that sort of thing home to the people who did not come here, and now let us see that we do it.

EIGHTH GENERAL SESSION.

Wednesday Evening, July 19.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P. M. by the President.

A Women's Meeting was announced for three o'clock Thursday afternoon.

Miss Louise Montgomery, of Buffalo, Chairman of the Committee on Neighborhood Improvement, was introduced, and presided over the deliberations of the evening.

The Chairman announced that the Committee did not offer a formal report but that the session would be devoted to the consideration of the effects of Immigration upon the community and the efforts that are being made and should be made to distribute the immigrants throughout the Union so as to avoid the present extreme congestion in certain cities.

The first paper to be presented was one written by Dr. Walter Weyl, of the University Settlement, New York. In Dr. Weyl's absence his paper, by unanimous consent, was read by Mrs. Florence Kelley. (Page 363.)

The discussion was opened by Mrs. Florence Kelley, New York.

MRS. KELLEY. — As Miss Montgomery has explained, the theory of the committee was that this evening should be devoted chiefly to the distribution of the immigrants who are here, not merely to the question whether or not other immigrants should be allowed to come. But Dr. Weyl, who prepared this paper, was entirely out of reach of the conference and the rest of the committee, being in Porto Rico, and he has discussed not the distribution of the immigrants who are with us already but the effect of immigration in general.

We cannot truthfully say that the committee presents Dr. Weyl's paper as a report unanimously approved of, because I personally feel very strongly that it is not the province of this conference to take the initiative in the matter of restricting immigration. No one, I feel quite sure, can live any great length of time in a settlement in any Eastern city, north of Mason and Dixon's line, without feeling increasingly every year that we are hardly to go on nursing the sick, crowding the children as we

do in New York, even teaching them dancing these hot summer nights on the tops of the public schools and making the life of the most congested district just as attractive as we can, without having any counterbalancing, clearly thought-out and consistently followed policy for inducing all our poor neighbors to bid us an affectionate good-bye, and go away as far as they can get from us, their loving friends. There is no other benefaction that I know of which could be conferred upon a large family living on the lower east side of New York that could for one moment compare with transporting it to Portland, Ore. The work of the settlements and the work of local charity in the great congested Eastern cities is doing exactly what Dr. Tomlinson described yesterday as the usual way of treating the insane and the feeble minded. We are doing everything in our power to ameliorate and to mitigate the situation of those who suffer quietly. But to really cure our congestion, so far as I know, only a very few scattered and largely unpublished experiments have hitherto been made. I hope that we shall hear later in the evening of the work of the industrial removal committee. I wish very much it had been possible to get some report of the work of the Salvation Army as to its co-operative colonies for removing the poor of great cities. Surely if we were really intelligent in organizing our charity, if we really had had very much foresight, or very much national sense of organization in this last five and twenty years, we should not have the sharp contrast that there is now between the Western States, with their hunger for people (which is expressed every time the discussion of immigration comes up in the Senate by the Senators from the Western States), and the frightful congestion of lower Manhattan and the congestion which is growing up in Philadelphia, and which is very terrible in certain parts of Chicago. I sometimes think that the people who live in settlements are less conscious of the points at which the greatest eflorts ought to be made, because we grow accustomed to the crowding, and I have heard a settlement resident complain of the loneliness in the suburbs.

If we had any national policy, if we, as a conference, had seriously considered what was the greatest good of the immigrants who are already with us, many of the undertakings at which we are toiling now would be vastly less onerous than they are and vastly more effective. Why are our hospitals overcrowded? Why is the hospital situation an ever recurring problem in the chief cities of the Atlantic seaboard? The hospitals are crowded with people who were not invalids when they came to us, but who have been made invalids by the conditions of congestion that we have allowed to grow up in those cities. Why have we so enormous a body of dependent children in New York City?

Perhaps our policy of dealing with them is not the wisest one, but if we have an undue number of orphan children in and out of institutions it is because our tenement houses have cultivated orphans by killing the workingman and workingwoman.

The congestion of population, whether it is a native population or an immigrant population, is an evil. Just at what point in any given city it becomes an evil is, of course, a subject for discussion, but that we should all sit down and fold our hands and assume that one-half the country must be hungry for people and the other half must permanently suffer those evils which arise from congestion is surely not a reasonable thing for us to have done so long. Congestion itself is a consequence of many other things, but the crowding of people as they are crowded into the tenth or the seventh ward of New York is in itself a cause of so many and so varied evils that it behooves us to fasten our attention upon that not as a symptom, not as a thing to be considered at one conference and then perhaps dropped as too dull, or too difficult, or too complex, or too local, but to be persistently dealt with. If there is one thing in the world at the present moment which is not local in its effects on our national life, it is that same crowding of people in our cities.

There are certain consequences of congestion that begin to arise very early, and in very prosperous places, and where one would least expect them. It is always explained to the investigator in New York City tenements that the tenement is in part the result of congestion, and the congestion is in part the result of the tenement. But in any case the building of dark rooms in the New York tenements was greatly increased, the temptation to do it was made more and more acute by the tremendous over-supply of tenants waiting for rooms of any kind, on any terms.

But why should preparations for congestion be made in a city like this? They are. I have been in Portland, in a house which was deliberately built, apparently, with dark rooms, or if it was not deliberately built it was shiftlessly built in that way, because these dark rooms were so near the border line of the lot that when a blind wall was built on the next lot you had exactly the preparation for the congestion to which we are all accustomed in New York. It was assumed that people here in Portland are ready to move into a house in a desirable location, which was provided with a light room in front, a light room in the rear and dark rooms in the middle, exactly after the fashion in New York.

We can begin to get the symptoms of congestion, the habit of mind that congestion carries with it, which is perhaps the worst thing about it, at an early stage of the growing of people into the conditions of city life. But I do not believe that the congestion in

the city of Manhattan, which produces conditions under which children cannot grow up normally, is any more unavoidable than that it was unavoidable to build dark rooms in the city of Portland.

When we discuss the feeble minded we discuss a branch of the work of the conference that has been with us forever, and will be here for a very long time to come. We shall spend Friday evening discussing the care of the sick poor in their homes by people who work chiefly among the tenements. Why should we sit silent while there is produced by wholesale a rapidly increasing supply of the sick poor in their homes to nurse, and at the same time go on providing a rapidly increasing staff of nurses and a rapidly increasing number of charitable organizations for continuing the work of nursing the sick poor in their homes? While they are there let us nurse them, but for Heaven's sake let us not assume that it is unavoidable that this ever-increasing congestion of population in the Atlantic cities must go on. We suggest that as an urgent and an immediate task of this conference.

Mr. Edw. T. Devine, New York.—I heard a gentleman, who is well known in this conference and who indeed made a very eloquent address to this conference this morning, say, during the course of the day, that he never undertook to address the conference without something like stage fright. I sympathize with that feeling at this moment, and go one point further. If there is anything more difficult to do than to address this conference of experts, it is to speak to this conference just after Mrs. Kelley on a subject about which she knows something and you do not.

A number of years ago I was a strong advocate of trade unionism. I spent quite a little time for a number of years in explaining and defending and exploiting and advocating the principles of labor organization, until I discovered that it made very little difference to the trade union movement whether I advocated it or not and that it made a great deal more difference to me and to the students whom I was instructing, that we should understand, as Prof. Graham Taylor urged this morning, the labor union movement than that any one person should advocate or denounce it. I have been going over a somewhat similar experience in regard to immigration. At the same time that I was advocating trade unionism and labor organization I was abusing immigration. I was advocating laws providing for the restriction of immigration. Now I have not gotten over that. There are people who advocate an educational test, there are people who advocate a property or money test, there are people who advocate a physical test, there are people who advocate a

test that shall exclude all those who are liable to become public charges, and there are people who advocate various other kinds of restriction. I have advocated all of these forms of restriction. I have found myself in sympathy with all the tests everybody has proposed for the limitation of the number of doubtful candidates for membership in our industrial and social order. And yet I have come to feel about as I have come to feel in regard to labor organization, that it makes very little difference after all whether in this drawn battle that is taking place, this conflict, this discussion where one advocates restriction and one opposes restriction, it is of very little consequence whether one particular person happens to range himself on one side or the other, and it is, on the contrary, of the utmost importance just as it is in the case of labor organization that we should with patience, with humility, with seriousness, attempt to understand it. It has seemed to me that it is vastly more important that we should try to understand what the presence of so large a body of immigrants and the vast number of immigrants coming to the country every year means, than that we should take this or that position in regard to any particular measure that is before Congress at a given time.

I heard two gentleman last evening discussing, in friendly dispute, the relative size of Denver and of Portland. One man said Portland is about the same size as Denver, the other said Denver is about twice as large as Portland, and they began to compare city directories and take other accurate means of testing the population. It has occurred to me, as I sat here hearing Dr. Weyl's paper, that we shall add just about as many people by the immigrant population to the City of New York this year, if we keep one-eighth or one-tenth of those who come, as equal the entire population of the City of Portland, and in two years we shall have an additional population about equal to Denver. And so it seems to me that the matter of immigration has for New York City, and has for the country at large, a very great significance and a very great importance indeed. Now I can see the full force of Dr. Weyl's argument for restriction. I believe that the community, as a whole, must study the causes which tend to maintain a high standard of living; that the community as a whole must study profoundly all the causes that are operating to reduce the standard of living. I believe that there is no more important question than the question of wages, the question of whether the wage-earning people of the community are earning, week after week, year in and year out, a sufficient amount to maintain what is for them a satisfactory standard of living, and whether there are forces at work which make that task on the part of the wage-earners more difficult. Now, there can be no doubt in my mind

that the incoming of a very large number of people, whether they are personally attractive or not, whether they have high moral character or not, who are accustomed to live at a lower standard of living, makes the maintenance of the present standard of living more difficult and that it does increase the difficulties of the wage earners to compete with people who are accustomed to a lower standard of living. And so I see three different ways of looking at this immigration problem: first of all, the point of view of those who want cheap labor, the point of view of the employer and the capitalist who is perfectly willing to exploit the natural resources and willing to exploit any cheap labor they can find and to whose pecuniary interest it is that there should be a large number of people whom they can thus exploit, and who favor immigration because they want a large number of people whom they can employ at a low wage. The manager of a large steel works once said to me that they had substituted Hungarians for Americans through all their works, and that as a result of this substitution they had men who were willing to work long hours, who were willing to work at a lower wage, and that the gain through these two changes more than compensated for the fact that they had to pay more for supervision than they had with their American workingmen. There is no doubt at all in my mind that from the employer's point of view there was a financial profit from that change and there is no doubt at all in my mind that from the social point of view they had not gained by that change, and that it was of greater good for the community that they should have paid less for supervision and had not had men who would have been willing to work longer hours or for lower pay.

The point of view, therefore, of the man who wishes to exploit cheap labor does not appeal to me, and I should not further unrestricted immigration for the sake of securing a large quantity of cheap labor, whether I lived in New York or in Portland.

And then there is, secondly, the point of view of the trade unions, to which Dr. Weyl has referred, and to which I have referred. The point of view of the desirability of maintaining a high standard of living and the increased difficulty of doing this, if there is unrestricted immigration, and from that point of view one comes to favor restriction, and just as you have got your ideas firmly settled on that point or are quite sure you are in favor of any kind of restriction there comes a third consideration.

Is it not of the utmost importance that American citizens should have world-wide sympathies? Is it not of the utmost importance, from the point of view of working out the highest type of national character, that we should know and should sym-

pathize with the problems of the Jews in Russia, with the problems of the Italians in Italy, with the problems of the Orientals in Japan, and that we should know and should feel ourselves in harmony with all humanity and at one with all humanity? And is it not true, as a matter of fact, that in the past century we have come to understand the world at large, that we have come to understand that we are a part of the great brotherhood of man, the better because of the fact that so large a number of people have come to make their homes among us, and is it not almost worth while to bear the increased economic burdens in order that we may have the wider experience and the larger knowledge which comes from the fact that we ourselves, under our own cloak and under our own banners, have become to a very great extent the world and have within our own borders all the elements that can be found throughout the world. And so one has some doubts as to whether there is not a national gain and a social gain that shall almost compensate for the undoubted economic disadvantages which immigration has brought.

Whether we favor restriction or fail to favor it, or whether we oppose it, it strikes me that it is for the people through the country of the utmost importance at the present time that we should understand, that we should sympathetically study, and that we should ally ourselves with the forces under the various racial groups that have come into our midst, that are working for the creation of a new and higher and better national type because of these elements that are in it.

Mr. Lee K. Frankel, New York. — While sitting here I have been repeating to myself the old saying of Mark Anthony, that I am no orator as Brutus is; I am only a plaint, blunt man. You can readily understand my feeling after Dr. Devine says that he suffers from stage fright.

The question of immigration, to my mind, is the most importane one that the people of the United States must consider at the present moment. The men and women who will make up our civilization fifty and one hundred years from to-day will, in all likelihood, be the descendants of the immigrants who have come here, particularly within the past twenty-five years and those who are arriving here probably at the present moment. For this reason there is no subject that lends itself to such a careful study, to such an unbiased study, to such an unprejudiced study, as the question of the immigrant who is daily arriving at our doors. The question that has been propounded to you this evening in Dr. Weyl's paper as to restricting the number of immigrants who may arrive here is by no means a new one. During the past three years or four years we have simply been going through a new phase, possibly somewhat more aggravated

than previous ones, but still reciting the old story well known to the people of the United States that certain classes of immigrants are arriving, undesirable, impossible to assimilate, and not of the kind or of the character that we deem essential for the future and for the maintenance of this republic. I may cite to you as far back as the early portion of the seventeenth century, when, in our Virginian colonies, there was the greatest effort made by those who were settled there to prevent the entrance of thirty thousand convicts who were sent here at that time from England, and who were dumped here by the mother government in order to get rid of them. And yet, in the fullness of time it appears that the descendants of those very thirty thousand became the progenitors and the ancestors of what to-day we consider the best and the most sterling of our eastern families. In the eighteenth century we similarly find a crusade preached against the coming of a large band of German immigrants into the State of Pennsylvania, and here, too, we find in the fullness of time a class of people than whom there is none better in the United States to-day. Later on, we find as a result of such attempted restriction, the alien and the sedition laws, and I now call to your attention, since it happened in the recent past, the crime of the "Know-nothing Party" and the attempt to exclude the Irish from the shores of America. So I say what is going on at present is simply a new phase of a general restrictive movement against immigration, largely a repetition of the Know-nothingism of the 50's and of the 40's, and I ask you, therefore, to try to be unbiased, unprejudiced, to do as Dr. Devine has suggested, to study the situation from its various standpoints, in the hope that we may in time through the medium of this conference arrive at some solution of what is most unquestionably a most complex and most complicated problem.

In the last address which the President of the United States sent to Congress, he made a very significant statement regarding immigration. He said the United States wants all the good immigrants that it can obtain, and it wants to keep out all the bad ones. Those are not precisely his words, but they practically cover the thought that he wished to convey, and to my mind whatever can be said pro or con on the subject the thought that we ought to have is crystallized in those apt words of President Roosevelt's.

Now there has been a great deal said on the question of immigration that is not altogether so. Many statements have been made which, if not false, at least lead to erroneous conclusions. Our newspapers are full of headlines calling attention to the enormous influx of immigrants, and I find that even Dr. Weyl has fallen into the fallacy of leading you to believe that the

immigration at the present time is heavier than it really is. Our statistics in question will show that for the fiscal year ending June 30 at least one million immigrants arrived in the United States, but we forget that during the same period of time during which these are arriving almost 350,000 again return to Europe; we likewise forget that of this million a very large percentage had been here before, and are simply coming back here to renew their family ties and to take up their occupation in the United States. Fallacies of this kind have largely crept into the subject and have distorted it, and put a face upon it that is not altogether consistent with the facts. What is the actual solution of this question? I fear that I have none to offer; I fear that there is none to offer; but I think we can safely say this, that so far as a question of volume is concerned the United States need not at the present moment concern itself. I think, irrespective of what may be said, it must appear to the thinking man and to the average common sense that in a country so vast and so boundless as this is, with so many opportunities still to be unfolded, that there is opportunity not for single millions nor even for tens of millions of additional inhabitants, and that when this country once begins to have hundreds of millions of people we may then take up the question of possibly restricting it, if simply the question of volume is to be considered.

I fully appreciate the standpont of the labor union man. He has my hearty sympathy, and I am in most instances fully in accord with his premises and with his deductions. On the question of reduction of wage through the immigrant I am inclined to differ. If this were the case, we should not have similar labor and industrial troubles in countries where there is no immigration, yet we find them in England and in Germany and in every part of the civilized world. Let us once for all be honest, and let us admit, while we may not willingly do so, that at the basis of all of our industrial conditions there is but one element and one factor and that is the factor of greed. When once we can educate the capitalist, the man of money, the employer, when we once can inject into him the old ethical doctrine that he should love his neighbor as himself, then most of our industrial difficulties and our labor trials will have disappeared.

Mrs. Kelley has dwelt upon the necessity for distribution. I am essentially in accord with that doctrine. After regulation such as we have under our law must come some concerted effort to distribute our immigrant population in the various centers where they are badly needed, or where they may become needed in the future. I do not at the present moment care to go into that question, because I think there is something deeper even than

that. There is one phase of the question that is rarely considered and that is the question of selection. The United States has the right and must select the immigrants that come to these shores, and if it is worth while for the government to spend at the present moment in the neighborhood of $2,000,000 per annum, which, by the way, the immigrant pays, in the attempt to keep out the unworthy, to keep out disease, to keep out the criminal, to keep out the prostitute, it certainly should be worth ten times and if necessary one hundred times that much to bring into the country that immigrant who possesses character, thrift and the desire to work, who will become part and parcel of our body politic. Now that cannot be done at Ellis Island or at the port of Philadelphia. That must be done long before the immigrant comes to these shores. If it is true that the education of a child must begin with his grandfather, then we must search for our immigrant not here, not even at the port from which he leaves, but we must go back to that place from which he comes, his birthplace if necessary, study him there, find out his character there, his records there, learn whether he is sound physically, whether he has been educated, and that is the test that eventually must apply in order to obtain in our midst those immigrants who are desirable and those immigrants who will work eventually for the public good.

And last, but not least in consideration of this problem of immigration, there is one thing that we in the United States must remember. That is, that when it comes to a question of doubt we must give the immigrant the benefit of it. We must remember that we do not own the United States of America, that this country, fresh in opportunity, grand in its possibilities, has after all been given to us in trust, a most sacred trust, it is true, and a grand heritage withal. This country was established by our ancestors and our forefathers one hundred years ago as a haven for the persecuted and oppressed, be that oppression of an economic or of a religious nature, and as long as there are people in other parts of this world who are suffering, who are unable to make ends meet, who through religious or economic intolerance, are compelled to tear up their belongings and to come to these shores to make this their abiding place, to rear their children honestly and in the fear of God, we must hold open our doors so that they may gain entrance.

Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Chicago. — I take it that there are exactly two native born races in this country who are justified in considering immigration, and unqualified restriction: the red Indian and the buffalo. For the rest of us the only attitude is to see how best we can deal with the situation as it exists without questioning its existence. Some time ago a public official

came to us and wished to make some inquiry as to the foreign families in the neighborhood and asked for an interpreter. A child was sent for, and they went out together for a few days, gathering statistics. When the child returned, she said "That woman asked foolish questions. She asked how much you save, how much rent you pay. Of course they not know, so I just make up answers for them." That story, of course, has many applications, but the one which occurs to me is the one bearing upon our study of this problem. It is easy to make figures which are very alarming. It is easy to state the question in a superficial or somewhat inhuman way.

An encouraging point for us all is that in the New York situation, with all its embarrassments, there is a group of people who are gradually spreading their influence through the country, who are trying to regard the question as a human question, and are trying to consider its economic aspects in this human relation, and who have to meet it in its most appalling form.

Now it is a question of how far we can effect this question of distribution and of adjustment. I remember an Italian friend who said to me, "Argentina, that is the place for my people; there they are on top, as the Irish are on top here."

Some of you perhaps saw the Austrian Minister, who visited this country a few weeks ago, and who was looking at the status of Austrian immigrants in this country from the standpoint of his own government, which was apparently not trying to force off people who would relieve their prisons, but were trying to formulate a plan to protect Austrian immigrants. He suggested something that we may do well to consider, and upon which we must depend rather than on restrictive measures at home, that was to seek out immigration of the sort we ought to have a right to expect.

I have some figures here which may seem a little far afield, which I am going to read at the risk of being misunderstood, but which have a certain interest especially if you will take premise that what they indicate is perhaps a matter within the control of those who are the most fortunate. They are the figures showing the percentage of foreign admission to certain of the great insane asylums of this country. There are only a few, but they are typical. In the North Dakota hospitals 60% of the admissions for the year 1904 were foreign born; Elgin, Ill., 38%; Milwaukee County Asylum, 76%; Hastings, Neb., 35%; the Chicago asylum showed 61%, and so on.

After all, the thing that we have to do is to recognize that at present we do not know much about the problem, and it is our business to find out, as wisely and patiently and as quickly as we can.

PROF. GRAHAM TAYLOR, Chicago. — I do not forget that this session of the conference is under the Committee bearing the title of Neighborhood Improvement, and I wish to view the situation from that point of view. It gives you a very mixed view, for you have to talk about your next door neighbors, whom you have learned to like, and yet you have to see the influence upon the institutions of your state and of your country.

I had a good warning given me once by Rabbi Hirsch. I was talking at a Chicago literary club, about the dangers of congestion. I fumbled around for a definition of congestion, and while I was trying to think of one he interrupted me and asked me if he could ask me a question. I said, "Certainly," though I said it rather uncertainly; and he said to me, "Which is the best citizen of a country, the man who leaves the place of his birth and seeks it because he would prefer it to any other, or the native who cannot tell for the life of him why he was born there?" Of course, the question answers itself. Nevertheless, my definition of congestion came to me in time to at least give me standing ground, for congestion seems to me to be having too much in one spot of what ought to be all over. Now if the blood is all over you, it is not a bit dangerous, but if it gets on the top of your head or in one single place you are in danger of apoplexy. It is very nice to have a mixed population, and of course I have felt the necessity in Chicago, for I dwell in the most densely populated district in the entire city and have for ten years, and I think there is a larger mixture of nationalities there than in any other part of the city. Now some of the more favorable, encouraging views of immigration, can be seen from such a location rather than in that tremendous populous district just northwest of me, where there are about 60,000 Polish and somewhat south of our place where there are 40,000 Bohemians. When you get an individual Polander or an individual Sicilian, and take him in the second generation he is not such a dangerous character, and you wonder after all whether the native is much better than he is. I have seen the first generation of Italians parading around the streets of my ward with transparencies just before the Presidential election, saying that this political club is open to engagements. They were engaged, too. But in making up a little political, non-partisan corps of about seventy-five members of all nationalities we so quickly and thoroughly establish the balance of political power in a ward of 65,000 people that there is absolutely less fraud at the ballot-box, less violation of the election law, it is said, in that district by the Judge of the Election Commissioners, than in almost any other part of the city of Chicago.

On the part of citizenship, ladies and gentlemen, I am not

so afraid of the foreign-born citizen of our seventeenth ward. We thought when the Polanders were added to the district that it was all over with the balance of power theory, but as a matter of fact they put up the best alderman we have ever had, who is now city attorney, and a man who is a conspicuous example of public spirit and ability, and you could not tell him from an American of the manor born. I do not think, therefore, on close range, that the difficulty is so appalling, when you pick them out one by one and when you see the second generation Americanized. I went down the street with a Catholic priest in the Polish district the other day, and the newer immigrants had a great deal of servility in them which he evidently did not like. "Now you see," he said, "they have recently come over." After a while there came down a big, husky fellow, swinging a pail and he said, "How are you, father?" and he said, "He is an American." And he seemed to like him for being that kind of a hail fellow well met.

The question of citizenship can be solved with a little mingling of those who understand American institutions and who have something of an esthetic patriotism. And here I wish to speak for a moment of education. Now I never realized what this country is owing to the public schools so much as I have since living in that neighborhood and then going away across the sea and looking back to my country from lands where an education is not to be demanded as a right, but is given as a gratuity. The distinctive characteristic of the American free school education is that it is as much the right of the latest immigrant to arrive as of the oldest inhabitant, and it is a great thing to give people the idea that they have the right to be educated, and in that great public school near the settlement you can go any evening during the winter evening sessions and find from seven to eight hundred of our neighbors, whole rooms full, crowded full of men — Polanders, Norwegians, Germans, Sicilians, Italians — and if you go around making little talks through interpreters no eye fails to gleam with a new light when you appeal to them for the right kind of citizenship here. I am only afraid that we will Americanize them too fast. I think they have a heritage to bring to us. I should not have them all at once forget their language, their customs, their heritage from the old fatherlands. They should love their fatherland no less for loving their adopted country the more.

That education process of eliminating the things that are non-fusible and refractory, as we say in the ores, is entirely possible in a public school system. That is like a great smelting furnace. There is another great agency which is not properly credited for the work that it is doing. I refer to the trades

union movement again. Miss Mary McDowell told me she saw some novitiates initiated into the labor union at the stock yards. There was a Lithuanian, a Finn, a Bohemian, an Italian and an Irishman, and they were all introduced by a negro. Now in what church wouldn't that be an amazing and pentecostal scene? Think of John Mitchell, down there in the anthracite coal region, think of him with a force facing starvation, speaking twenty-two different languages, men without any common heritage, and yet with a discipline which Dr. Fellows, of the Reformed Church, told me personally excelled that of his brigade in the volunteer army of the United States during the civil war.

I say to you that was a marvelous social achievement. That sort of thing is being done on a far larger scale than we think for, and yet I would not say that the paper read before us and Mrs. Kelley's statements have not a good deal in them that should make us think and hesitate.

One of the gentlemen to whom Miss Lathrop referred I had the pleasure of meeting, the representative from Austria-Hungary. He said that the Austro-Hungarian government was looking very carefully at the line of immigration on this side of the ocean. We should look at it as carefully on their side of the ocean. We should have special immigration agencies over there, at different points through Europe. I do not believe the consular service of the United States is adequate to that very serious responsibility. There should be very much more care at the point of departure, much more care of distribution than the steamship companies give, whose only object is to land another passenger or rather land his fare in their coffers.

All that this conference can do is to understand the individual immigrant nearest to you. I am appalled at the kind of inhuman lack of fellowship there is. I once visited a family who confessed to me that there were sixty Hungarian immigrants right over the cliff. They had never gone over that cliff to get an acquaintance with a single one of their neighbors. How can they expect them to become Americanized or assimilated? It is up to the American stock, to the people who have taken root here first to try and see how far we can assimilate, and then when we do get to the point of industrial saturation, just on the same principle that the settlements keep up their own standards of living — rather than fall down to the spaghetti type right around them, on the principle that it is better to have one family that is a little bit idealizing, etc. — so it seems to me on the same great principle that has so many applications, the great principle of protective tariff, which also reaches into the limitations of output on both sides of the industrial plant, that some of our Republican manufacturers don't like to consider, there is a great big prin-

ciple is there, whether it is not better to keep the standards better in one land at least, so that we can have a little bit of a leverage to go back for the greater world outside. But let us be very careful that we do not shut the door too soon, for the finest and strongest type of American citizenship is its cosmopolitan strain.

Miss Morrow.—While Professor Taylor was speaking there arose in my mind unfortunately the picture of hundreds of Polish children in the city of Buffalo for whom there is no public school opportunity, who are growing up without any opportunity even to learn our language, that first requisite of becoming an American citizen. How many such places there are in other cities I cannot say. I know that such conditions do exist in Buffalo. I know that New York City is not able to take care of all its school children. I know there are such conditions, also, in our most congested districts.

I admire Dr. Taylor's optimism and agree with all that he has said, but we must remember also that we are not at the present time furnishing this glorious American education of which he speaks to all who demand it.

Mr. W. A. Gwin, San Francisco.—In the papers we have heard and the speeches made there have been some attitudes of this question that have not been touched, and which I wish to call attention to at this time. I think it was Mrs. Kelley who said that our solution of the question was to take these people to the West. Scatter them into other regions, and do not allow them to congest in the larger cities; that members of Congress had said that their states were begging for immigration, and that these people could very probably be sent to these states.

I want to correct the impression which I think that statement might make. The free land of this country is gone. The states are begging for immigrants for people with money who have power to buy the land that is already allotted and to make farming communities and settlements of it. I know of no Western State, and I do not believe that there is a Western State west of the Mississippi River that is begging for common laborers, or that wants common laborers. What they want are agriculturists with sufficient financial backing that they are able to buy and settle lands.

I can say for the State of California that I think the state does not want a laboring immigrant at present. But we have lots of available land and so we have in all Western States, and what we do want is somebody who can buy that land of the original owners and who can settle it and put it to productive uses. We have a peculiar situation on the Pacific Coast, and nothing has been said about it at all. At the present time the Chinese exclusion law has almost crushed. There is an appeal made, and that

appeal comes from the Atlantic Coast, that this law shall not be extended, and China does not want it extended. As you all know, there are Orient combinations against buying goods from America because of this Chinese exclusion law, and there are people in the East who arise and say that California must not stand in the way of our trade with the Orient but that she must step down and satisfy China by removing this restriction and permitting the influx of Chinese, and, of couse, the influx of Japanese. The Pacific Coast is opposed to this, and why? How many of you know how the Chinaman lives. We are opposed not to the Chinese merchant, not to the Chinese student, but to the Chinese coolie. These men come from a country where living is very low. They come in here, and live in hovels. I could take you to districts where these people live, and you would be surprised at the filth and dirt and the cheap methods in which they live. They have no families. They live as single men. They come here and live in a condition by which they can cut wages down to the very lowest and crowd down wages so low that the ordinary white man cannot live. We do not want these conditions on the Pacific Coast. The Chinese coolie and the Japanese coolie bring a condition of things that is much lower than any immigrant which you are getting upon the Atlantic Coast. I fear that the government will demand that similar laws be enacted as to all nations. I do not know why the Japanese and the Chinese are not entitled to the same consideration as other countries. I will admit that I do not know where the line is to be drawn, although surely the question of admission of common laborers into the West is not what the people desire. I think that almost unanimously the people of the Pacific Coast, from the north to the south, are opposed to the unrestricted immigration into this country of the Japanese and Chinese coolie.

An incident came under my observation within the last two months. A man in California who owns over twenty thousand acres of land told me that a rich Chinaman had asked him if he could rent that twenty thousand acres under a twenty year lease. He said he did not want it until he knew whether the Exclusion Act was going to be extended; if it was, he could not take it, and if it was not that he wanted to rent the land and he would bring laborers from China to farm and till it.

In the fruit districts of California, where Japanese labor has gotten in exclusively, we find that the labor is under the control of a boss and that the laborer does as the boss says. Usually the majority of coolies cannot speak English. If they see a particularly fine orchard that has been profitable this year, when it comes to harvesting that fruit next year the Japanese coolies are all too busy. Other labor is shut out of the district, the man

cannot market his fruit because he cannot get white labor in there where there is so much coolie labor. The result is that the man fails. The next year the boss comes around and says he will rent the property, that he cannot pick the fruit, but that he will rent. The result is that the Japanese are forcing the properties out of the hands of the owners and forcing them to lease, and the result is the running down of the property.

I just mention this to show some of the conditions. We cannot settle this question now. I do not know the solution of it, but I do know that the Pacific Coast is going to stand and stand firmly against the influx of the Japanese and Chinese coolie, and I believe we should exclude not only the Japanese and the Chinese coolie but we should exclude the coolie of every race and every nation. Immigration has been largely solicited. That is one of the evils of the immigration from Europe. If we can cut off the steamship agent who tells such plausible stories of wealth over here and keep him from soliciting this class of people we will stop some of it. If we can stop the sending over of the insane, the criminal and the pauper class, we will cut off some more.

Mr. Hugh Fox, Plainfield, N. J. — I should not propose to follow this all star combination if I had not a piece of concrete testimony to give. I do not entirely agree with the gentleman from California, who has just spoken, as to his statement of conditions on this coast. Let me give you an instance that I can vouch for that happened in the State of Oregon last year, and you will pardon me if I appear to be talking shop, because perhaps it is the statement of a fact that has some bearing upon this situation. There was a large hop grower in Oregon who feared that he might not be able to get labor enough to harvest his crop, and that is a common difficulty not only in the hop industry but in a good many other branches of agriculture in Oregon and Washington and other Western States. This man took out a federal license for a saloon on his ranch, and got out hand-bills announcing that during the hop picking season, for the benefit of his pickers, there would be a dance and a festival on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, and a prize fight on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays. He succeeded in getting labor, alleged labor. The rest of the community had to be sworn in as special police. Now that is an extreme case, but it indicates a condition in this industry and others in the Pacific Coast States and in other states I presume also in the West. The development of good farm lands (and I can speak also for New York State and some of the Eastern States) is being hindered because of the difficulty of getting farm labor, and that is why the cry is going up in some parts of the Pacific Coast to-day for the recon-

sideration on the border lines, if you please, or the interior as you may look at it, of the Chinese and general exclusion acts.

Mr. Charles F. Weller, Washington, D. C. — I ask a moment with a good deal of hesitation, and only because I feel impelled to give a little testimony which to my mind seems to me interesting in behalf of a little group of Russian Jews and a little group of Italians who came over the Canadian Pacific with our party a few days ago. The sentiment which has received the strongest applause this evening was that voiced by the gentleman from California, favoring exclusion, and systematic diminution of immigrants, and there is undoubtedly a strong growing sentiment in that direction. Now I wish to offer, on the other side of that, a little item of personal experience. Nearly all my life I have lived in Chicago. The latter part of my life in Chicago I lived in a crowded Italian district and a good deal of the time in an Italian tenement. From that city of the foreign born I went to a city where the white people are practically all native born. I went to Washington, the national capital. I had been a rather strong advocate of the restriction of immigration. I am not so strong on that side now, because I have studied since then our native born white population, and I want to suggest to the members of this conference, not at all with the thought of criticising my own people, that in your study of immigration you also take up the study of the native white stock not as to our sentimental duties toward the oppressed of Europe but simply to study what we have to gain from the importation of many of these progressive elements. I want that side of it also stated, for it seems to me in Washington and the Southern States — I say the Southern States because even from the smaller towns of Massachusetts comes the same testimony — it seems to me that in many instances the native white stock, allowed to settle in a community and not leavened by incoming immigration, deteriorates.

While self-satisfaction and pride would shut out some of these people from Southern Europe, still with a lack of immigration there is a lack of that progressiveness, that humility, that appreciation of the fact that they are down and that desire to get up for which the immigrant stands, even when the steamship companies do help to stimulate it, even then for a man to go three thousand miles into a strange place means progressiveness and means ambition.

I do not mean to say that I do not appreciate the other side, but I do want to make an appeal, as the rest have made it, for the study of immigration and for a study of our needs among the native white stock, our needs of the sort of thing which immigration may bring us, and I do want to make an appeal for a change

of the emphasis. Why emphasize restriction? But put all our thought and mind for the next few years on the great question of distribution, and when you are distributing them don't forget us in the South. We want them.

Mr. W. A. Gates, San Francisco. — I think that this audience will agree that that man of whom Mr. Fox spoke got just the kind of labor that the tactics which he used to get it entitled him to and no more. The man who uses those tactics cannot get decent labor, and he might expect the whole comunity to be called out. The most of that labor is tramp labor from the East. I have been sitting near a respected citizen of this state, who has lived in this state forty years, who states that last year and during the past years Oregon has been able to get all the white labor it wanted to harvest its crops. I say this in answer to Mr. Fox.

Mr. A. J. Pillsbury, Sacramento, Cal. — I think that the last speaker on this side brought up a question worthy of very deep consideration. He seems to have lost faith in the American stock. Now I know that our penitentiaries are filled with native-born American boys, and why? It is because every time there is a job for a journeyman there is a journeyman brought over from Europe to take the job, and whenever you hear a band of agitators upon the streets talking for labor they have a brogue. I don't believe that we are justified in losing faith in the stock that settled our Eastern States, or settled our Middle West States. I do not believe, either, that the way to rear up and get a race of any kind is to rear it on the mongrel basis, the basis of a mixture of the offscouring of the earth. It was not so, ladies and gentlemen, that the splendid Durhams and other stock that we have in this country were brought up to their present high level; it wasn't by mixing everything from everywhere, and mixing them indiscriminately. I tell you what America owes more than anything else: a debt of gratitude to the New England conscience, and it is because of the decadence of the New England conscience that we suffer most of the ills that we do.

When the desire to make money knows no right and no wrong, when money-making men are making forty to sixty per cent. on their money, are making sugar in Hawaii and scouring the earth to find the cheapest labor and send the refuse over here to fill our reform schools, our penitentiaries and our asylums, we do not have to look far to find the reason. It may be that Providence has more in store for us than we imagine, but if it has I wish it would accomplish it by less disreputable methods.

Judge Mack, Chicago. — A native son of the golden west on the paternal side, the son of a German immigrant on the maternal side, and a grandson of German immigrants, I appeal to

the students of this problem of immigration to study it in a broad way, to study it with open mindedness, and to remember the words of Miss Lathrop in her opening sentence: "The only native scendants of immigrants, and whether you are removed one or two born American is the Indian." You and I and all of us are degenerations, or perhaps be able to call yourselves fortunate enough to be removed ten generations, still you are the descendants of immigrants, and you and I do not own this American soil ourselves. We in this conference talk of the greed of capitalists, we talk of their greed of money. Do not let us be guilty of greed of Americanism. Let us know that this Americanism is for the whole world, and let us invite the decent of the whole world to come and partake of it. Do not let us be greedy, do not let us be guilty of the Know-nothingism that was cast out in the middle of the last century. Let us be true American; let us remember our ancestry; let us remember that we are all children of immigrants, and let us welcome the decent immigrant, that his children may become what we have become — good, decent, American citizens — and do not let us forget the articles of Lincoln Steffens, in which he contrasts the communities in which the actual immigrants preponderate, as compared with those communities — Rhode Island and some of the other great New England States — in which the native American born of six and eight generations preponderate. Do not let us forget the comparison he makes of the political independence and political morality of the two communities.

Mr. Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield, N. J. — Two years ago, when this conference was studying the child labor problem, a gentleman very well known in this conference was asked what had been the nature of the opposition to the proposed very moderate child labor law which had been introduced in the legislature. His reply was that the bill was killed by California fruit growers, because they feared they could not spare child labor in their industry.

Mr. W. A. Gates, San Francisco. — California has as good a child labor law as there is in the Union to-day.

Mr. Alexander Johnson. — We always want to give the conference anything we have learned in the last year, and for the last nine or ten months I have been living in a tenement house, among Bohemians, Jews, and people of that kind, and I want to tell you what cheerful, bright, happy neighbors they make. In the part of New York I live in there are a great many saloons and liquor stores selling liquor at retail, but on our street I never saw a drunken man in that nine months. I went one Saturday night down Avenue A, from Tompkins Square to Delancy Street. It was crowded so you could not possibly walk along

the sidewalk; to make any progress at all you had to walk along the middle of the street. In all that crowd I did not hear an oath or any angry talking or vulgarity, or see anybody intoxicated. Everybody was bright and cheerful. What some of these foreigners have to bring us — I am an immigrant myself, you know — at least one thing they have to bring us is the faculty of living happily, of being joyous and gay even in poverty and hardship.

I want to refer you to a little story in this month's *Everybody's* called "Jerusha and Giuseppe," the story of a New Englander, with the proverbial New England conscience and dyspepsia, and a sunny Italian immigrant, who married her and showed the family how to be happy, although conscientious.

Miss Montgomery. — I regret to say it is necessary to bring this discussion to a close. We have already overrun our time. It is hoped sincerely that in this discussion we have been able to bring out new facts, so that we shall not look at any one side too closely. If in this discussion we have arrived at some knowledge that will lead to better understanding and more sympathetic appreciation of this great question, then this discussion will have been worth while.

Adjourned until Thursday morning, July 20, 10:30 o'clock.

NINTH GENERAL SESSION.

Thursday Morning, July 20.

The meeting was called to order by the President at 10:30.

Mr. Alexander Johnson, Chairman of the Committee on Reports from States, presented the report of that Committee. (Page 32.) Mr. Johnson said:

In offering our report the committee wish to present one thought, and that is the absolute necessity of accurate statistics with regard to pauperism and crime in a state before you can ascertain whether you are gaining or losing ground. Opinions are vague, are easily formed, and are usually formed from very little data. We see a few people getting well to do, and we think we are prospering; we see a few people in desperate circumstances, and we think we are retrogressing. Proper statistics, carefully gathered, are essential. No state knows what it is doing unless it has some good method of gathering, collating and publishing statistics that are valuable. The committee joins with

me in thinking that there is no one thing that most of the states lack so much as accurate and full and trustworthy statistics.

The report of the Committee on Statistics was called for, Mr. Amos W. Butler being Chairman.

Mr. Butler. — I am placed in rather an embarrassing position this morning, because I have to make an explanation instead of a report. My information is that this Committee was appointed at the Conference at Portland, Maine, last year, (I was not present at the session when this matter was brought up), and was appointed as the result of a request from representatives of the Census Bureau for some sort of co-operation and help from the National Conference; that the recommendation was discussed and considered and perhaps reconsidered and finally the Committee of which I have the honor to be the Chairman, was appointed, with this provision: that the Committee should act under the direction of the Executive Committee. So far as I have been able to learn, the Executive Committee has taken no action and given no direction. I received a very kind letter from Dr. Smith shortly before the program was prepared, inviting at least a paper on this subject, but at that time I was so pressed by other things that I could not prepare it, and with this explanation I will say that I believe the present Committee should be discharged. But I believe that a committee on statistics might be very valuable, useful not only to the Conference but to the Charity work of the country generally. I realize, following Mr. Johnson's suggestion, that we are very much in need not only of statistics but of statistics that are gathered in accordance with some method, and that there should be certain uniformity at least in essentials.

Mr. President. — I should like to say that the genesis of the Committee is as described by Mr. Butler. A request did come from the Census Bureau that we should assist them. The appointment of the Committee, however, was the result of discussion afterwards, and was not based upon that specific request. Mr. Butler is in error at that point, having been misinformed, and the limitation that was put upon the Committee by the Conference that they were to work under the Executive Committee, was to prevent the Committee representing the Conference in the Census Bureau or anywhere else without the approval of the Executive Committee.

The report of the Committee on Training for Social Workers was read by Prof. Graham Taylor, Chairman. (Page 436.)

THE PRESIDENT. — With respect to the next Committee, that on Workingmen's Insurance, I have a statement that I wish to make to the Conference. This Committee was appointed three years ago, with Dr. Charles R. Henderson as Chairman. They were given three years in which to make a final report. Dr. Henderson is in Europe, as most of you know, and the Committee have been unable to accomplish their labors. Dr. Henderson requests a continuance of the Committee another year, at which time a final report will perhaps be made. I speak in this doubtful way because I think it extremely doubtful if the Committee will ever agree on any report, but they might agree on two or three reports, which might add more interest to the occasion.

As a member of the Committee Dr. Henderson seemed quite inclined to the idea that we can adopt in this country, something like the German insurance system and that our report ought to be perhaps a basis for future legislation. On the other hand I do not think that the German system could ever be Americanized or find itself at home in this country and as to the opinions of the other members of the Committee I am not informed.

There have been some papers prepared, however, one by Mr. Frederick L. Hoffman, upon the German System of Workingmen's Insurance, which we propose to read by title only and ask leave to print in the volume of proceedings. (Page 445.) Mr. Butler, of Indiana, has prepared quite an exhaustive paper on the pension system in the United States with reference to this question, and that paper is mentioned this morning. Whether it will be printed or not in the present form or whether Mr. Butler will ask another year I do not know. I think the Conference can leave that to Mr. Butler and to the Secretary as to whether that shall be printed this year or some ensuing year.

There is a paper by Prof. Brooks, of Cambridge, not on the program, that Dr. Henderson desires to have submitted here as a report of progress. It will be read by the Secretary.

The Secretary read Prof. Brooks' paper, which was thrown open for a brief discussion. (Page 452.)

MR. EDW. T. DEVINE. — It is an interesting question whether workingmen's insurance in Germany lightens the relief burden. It is quite probable, on the contrary, that the large amounts paid in insurance have the effect of compelling the authorities to pay more to those who are not insured and who, when they become dependent, receive public outdoor relief. The Department of Pub-

lic Charities over which Dr. Münsterberg presides in Germany, spends nearly 3,000,000 marks a year chiefly in outdoor relief under the Elberfeld system. Such an amount in any American city which did not include expenditures for hospitals or almshouse, would seem to us incredibly extravagant.

Dr. Zacker, who is the official head of the workingmen's insurance scheme, told me last summer that he had no doubt that the existence of workingmen's insurance very largely increased the amount disbursed in relief, because it raised the general standard of living.

THE PRESIDENT. — I should just like to say a word or two about this matter as a member of the Committee, since no one else wishes to speak at this time. The problem of workingmen's insurance is intended to secure the workingman in times of sickness and old age against the lack of the necessaries of life. The burden is distributed between the government, which pays its proportion, the employer, who is taxed a certain amount, and the employee, from whose wages a certain amount is taken, and these three funds together form the basis of the pension. While a great deal of confident assurance is used with respect to the outcome of the German system it may be noted that the system has not been in existence long enough yet for these old age pensions to have become operative, and we cannot tell what the outcome will be. The political side of the question is obvious. The pension system of Germany was developed as an offset to social democracy. It was, in other words, a modified form of socialism, which it was hoped by those who were its advocates would be quite sufficient, so that having this much socialism other movements would be checked.

In Australia, on the other hand, the situation is somewhat different. The workingmen's pensions in Australia have come to a realization through the dominance of the social democratic forces, so that the political safeguard in Germany has become the political realization in Australia.

Now a word as to the difference in our own country. I think most workers who are familiar with the problem at first hand will say that the American relief problem is not a problem of relieving mechanics or skilled workmen, and that while there are, of course, occasional mechanics and skilled workmen who require relief, the real problem is with unskilled labor. For unskilled labor, where there is no permanent employment, and no permanent receipts, the whole scheme of workingmen's insurance is totally impossible. We have in this country a very much more mobile population than in any other civilized country in the world. People begin in Massachusetts, migrate to Ohio, find themselves in Kansas, and by and by have a home in Cali-

fornia. Now this floating of our population is something almost wholly unknown anywhere else. Of course people migrate, but not to such an extent as in this country. The unskilled workman is so often employed a short time by this man and a short time by the other that nothing like the permanence exists that is needed in workingmen's insurance.

Then the fundamental difficulty is that we have no National Government for Internal Affairs. We have a National Government for foreign Affairs, making tariffs, and so forth, but we have no National Government for Internal Affairs in the same sense that other civilized countries have. The State in this country is the unit of organization, and to make a system of old age pensions applicable to all the states, — well, those who have thought about getting uniform marriage and divorce laws, those who have wished for uniform laws in regard to migration of paupers, and who realize the difficulty of securing any such legislation, will see how utterly impossible it would be to have uniform insurance laws in the different states of this country, particularly when you reflect that the economic conditions of the states are so varied.

Mrs. Florence Kelley, New York. — I should like to point out the fact that although the relief of mechanics is not a large part of the work of the charities represented in this Conference because it is so largely taken care of by the insurance of the trade unions, yet the relief of widows and orphans of mechanics needlessly and preventably killed at their work, is a very large part of the work of charitable organizations in this country. I should like also to point out that while it is still true that we have only a very slender government for home consumption in this country, a very slender function of the Federal Government, that government has found it possible to develop new functions from time to time as these functions have seemed indispensable. A government which finds it possible, for instance, to take care of the health of the young lobsters on the coast of Maine, would seem to have ingenuity enough at a pinch to enable it to make some sort of provision for the orphan children of skilled and unskilled workmen. It may take a long time. It has taken a long time to learn to take care of the lobsters.

It was pointed out by the Chairman that it is impossible to insure the unskilled working people. I had the pleasure of living in Germany in the four years in which the initial experiments were made with accident and other insurance, and as I understood it, the very first steps that were taken were to organize certain industries all the way down from the top. The manufacturers were requested to form their organizations, and then the different grades

of workingmen according to their wages were got together and their share of the insurance was carefully assessed down to the youngest child who was allowed to work at all, and the most unskilled workingman. I know that one of the most difficult things to ascertain was exactly the share which the woman who attended a switch on one of the Prussian Railways was to be assessed, that being regarded at that time as an unskilled share of work; and also it was found very difficult to assess the proper share of his wages which would be paid by a little boy who pulled around the anchorage of a windmill which worked only when the wind was in a certain direction. Such unskilled labor as that was considered necessary to be brought under the movement in the initial stages. I do not see why, if it is possible to look out for the shifting mass of unskilled workers who surge into the great German cities, it should be impossible for us to do the same thing in this country. Our inventive genius I think we have never before declared so bankrupt.

Prof. Graham Taylor, Chicago. — There is another phase of this situation not to be identified with it, but very closely connected, which we have paid scant attention to. That is the postal savings banks. There is absolutely no safe, sure, easy way of depositing small savings, and it is a perfect scandal to the American Democracy that every country in Europe appeals to the confidence of its citizens, and we cannot do it for the preposterous reason that the private savings banks will not allow us to. Mr. John Wanamaker said there were just three reasons why we could not have the parcel post that they have in every other civilized land, and those three reasons were the three trans-continental express companies. The only reason under heaven why we should not have the postal facilities that they have in Great Britain is the pull that the private savings banks have on our members of Congress. It is a scandal and a shame to us. Anybody who has lived among the working class knows the absolute discouragement they have in trying to save, for, for the life of them, they do not know what to do with their small savings. Of course the Penny Provident is a very valuable thing, and very useful, but, for instance, in many great cities like Chicago the Penny Provident gives no interest on deposits. You can go to a postoffice in England and deposit your money if you have a little savings, or a parcel to be delivered, or you can send a telegraph message and sometimes a telephone message, and then have a letter written at the end of the line, and sent further by Rural Delivery. All these conveniences and facilities are put by the government in the hands of the people. That the most democratic government in the

world is the most aristocratic in its industrial management is a shame to American Democracy.

Mr. A. J. Hutton, Waukesha, Wis. — The question which I had first in mind I think you have answered already. That is, whether the tendency of a pension system would not be directly toward socialism.

Another question was whether such a system would not necessarily tend to extravagance and improvidence on the part of too many of our people. It seems to me that for myself, having a very small income, if I were sure that in old age or in case of my own death my family would be provided for, I should have less anxiety, and accordingly less care for the future. It is because we are so democratic that we like the idea, so far as possible, of providing for our own future, and not leaving it to the purses of others to provide for us.

At home I am brother-in-law to the Presbyterian church, and I know it to be a very good family to be connected with. I refer to this, if you please, because it furnishes an illustration that comes nearest to myself in relation to this matter of old age pensions. It is a system, as every Presbyterian, I suppose, knows, to provide by contributions, and they are very persistently called for, for the aged and disabled pastors of the church. In a great many instances members of the church who have smaller incomes by far than the pastor are called upon to contribute to a general pension fund for that excellent class of people. It always seemed to me that the preacher, that everybody, ought as far as possible to be provident, and saving during the years of his ability to labor and save. That is one of the fundamental conditions of our democracy. It does seem to me that every effort to provide pensions for everybody in old age, is in the direction of socialism, and finally in the direction of monarchical or aristocratic rather than democratic government. When the Government is doing everything there will be just so much less for the people to do in taking care of themselves. The disposition will be more and more to look to the government rather than to one's own ability and energy and saving.

Miss Lucile Eaves, San Francisco. — I want to indorse from another point of view what the last speaker has just said. We all realize that if such a pension system as this becomes general in our country, it must be by a fund raised through the taxation of the mass of our working people. Anyone who has followed the history of our institutions realizes that our development is different from that of old European countries, realizes to how large an extent they have been local. They

have not been centralized; they have not been paternalistic in character.

Last year I attended the meetings of the American Federation of Labor. I spoke to a number of labor leaders on this subject of old age pensions. The subject was taken up and vigorously discussed. I am convinced that there is a strong feeling among the more intelligent of our working people against any system of this kind. They feel somewhat as the last speaker has suggested. They feel that what we need is to bring about good conditions, while the man is able to work, and they resent the paternalism that will undertake to save for them. Our ideals demand that we try and increase the intelligence and thrift that will make our working people look forward to their old age and make adequate provisions themselves. That is in harmony with our ideals of personal development, and also with our institutional development. It will require a radical change of our ideals, before we can have such a system as has been devoloped in some of the older European countries.

MR. J. H. GLASSMAN, Omaha, Neb. — I should like to ask the question how a workingman with five or six or seven children on $1.50 a day can provide for old age.

MR. L. A. ROSING, St. Paul, Minn. — I do not desire to speak of old age pensions, because I believe it is in the far distant future, but there is one question affecting labor which I think an organization of this kind could properly take up for consideration. In late years all our industries have changed. Our workingmen are not now laboring with their hands alone, but they are, in the main, working with rapidly moving machinery. They are taking a great deal of risk in their every day toil. It is hardly fair to expect a man who is working for $1.50 or $2 a day to carry the whole risk of that industry. I believe we should, instead of fighting for something that must be in the dim and distant future, rather advocate industrial insurance. Make the industry carry the risk of these rapidly-moving machines. In doing so we do not deprive the man of his individuality, and we take care of the man who is unfortunate. You may say he may bring a personal injury action, but if his employer can prove that there was any contributory negligence, then he cannot recover. Men who constantly work with rapidly moving machinery are always subject to accident, whether contributory negligence is involved or not, because working men are subject to the same lapse of mind that we are in all other walks of life, and a moment's forgetfulness means the loss of a hand or a permanent injury, which deprives him of the ability to support a family. I believe we should advocate

industrial accident insurance to protect these men who suffer from lapse of mind and inattention for a moment, and are thus deprived of their ability to labor.

Mr. A. J. Pillsbury, San Francisco. — We have a form of pension in our own country which we see in operation every day, and that can throw some light upon this issue. I refer to the pension paid by the United States government to old soldiers. In every community you have many of this kind, and how many of them, setting apart those totally incapacitated from labor, have been benefitted by that pension? How many of them are men who have years of good labor in them, men who could have otherwise lived for a useful purpose, but who have simply existed, because they could exist, on that meagre pension. In every community that I have ever visited those men are to be seen upon the streets, day after day, right through the year, unproductive, unprofitable, not very happy. They feel that their pension is going to keep them just as long as they live, and so they merely live to use up that pension. I think that it is going to be a lamentable mistake whenever, in the time of the development of this country, we take the responsibilities of life off the individual and lay them on the state.

One more point regarding postal savings banks. Whenever a government that proposes to pay its debt expects to borrow, that implies that it must lend. If our government is to follow the fashion of the nations of Europe and never expect to be out of debt, but always to be a vast borrower, it may do to borrow money from the people in small sums in that way, but I do not believe it is the idea of the American people that the nation is to be perpetually in debt, but sometime to redeem their obligations, and I do not believe we can enter upon any system of lending government money to the people.

The report of the Committee on Transportation was presented by Mrs. S. I. George, Denver.

This was followed by a general discussion on the subject of the Committee on Transportation.

Mr. Devine, New York, moved that the Committee on Working Men's Insurance be given another year's time. Seconded, put to vote and carried.

Mr. Charles F. Weller, Washington, D. C. — I move that the request of the Conference be communicated to the President of the next Conference and the Executive Committee to provide a place on the program for a brief report of the Committee on Organization and Transportation next year.

(Motion seconded, put to vote and carried.)

The President announced that the National Prison Congress will hold its next meeting in Lincoln, Nebraska, from October 21 to October 26.

The Conference adjourned until 8 o'clock P. M

TENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Thursday Evening, July 20.

The Conference was called to order at 8:00 P. M., by the President.

Mr. Nathan Bijur, New York, Chairman of the Committee on Care of the Sick, was introduced, and conducted the evening's program.

Mr. Bijur. — I have taken the liberty of departing somewhat from the usual precedents in the case of our Committees and instead of inflicting upon you a report prepared by the Chairman of the Committee, I have asked three gentlemen to prepare papers on three phases of the dealing of charitable organizations with the sick poor. The subject naturally falls into three distinct categories, preventive work, actual care of the sick, and then dealing with the convalescent.

Dr. Norman Bridge, Los Angeles, Cal., read a paper entitled "Prevention of Disease by Improved Housing, Sanitary and Economic Conditions." (Page 186.)

The Chairman. — It is rather unfortunate that Dr. Bridge should have read this paper in Portland, Oregon. I have caught no mosquitoes, I am told there are no flies, and the citizens of Portland inform us that the water comes from the foot of Mt. Hood, and that leaves only the milk to be discussed.

Dr. Walter Lindley read a paper entitled "The Actual Care of the Sick in Hospitals and Care of the Sick in Their Homes." (Page 194.)

The Chairman. — I do not know where Dr. Lindley derived his information about dollar-a-day hotels. Nothing has

happened to me in Portland since I came here to call that to my attention, and I hope that some of the speakers will refer to those of the poor who are not able to pay even one dollar a day. I will call on Dr. Josephi, of Portland, to open the discussion.

DR. JOSEPHI. — The care of the sick poor presents a problem which seems to me much simpler than the care of the poor who are not sick. In the care of the sick poor we are confronted with a condition which must be met as an initial proposition. We should not stop to inquire whether in any particular case the person is able to pay, or might be made to work so as to earn enough to pay. Now that being the case we have simply the proposition, What are we going to do with this sick person? We have to take care of him. How is he to be cared for? The last speaker said, "In the home or in the hospital." I would add to that the treatment as an outpatient at a dispensary. I mention that because I want to touch upon that presently.

In the city of Portland there is a visiting Nurses association which takes care of the worthy sick poor at their own homes and a small amount is charged in those cases where it is found they can afford to pay. I think we are all pretty well agreed upon the proposition that in many cases it is best to take care of the sick poor at their homes, through the ministration of a qualified nurse and physician.

The medical college with which I am connected has endeavored, in connection with one of the large hospitals here, to organize and operate an out-patient department for the worthy poor for the last two or three years and we have found so far that it has been almost impracticable to conduct it for the reason that there were so few patients who presented themselves for free examination, consultation, advice and treatment. This year we intend to establish a dispensary in some downtown district where we will perhaps come in touch with this class of people, and if we can be aided in this or co-operate with charitable organizations, we should be very glad indeed. Pauperization of the sick, who do not have to go to the hospitals or who are not confined to their homes, is comparatively rare in the city of Portland.

I fully agree with Dr. Lindley that we ought to avoid as much as possible pauperizing the sick, as well as those who are not sick. I believe in the combination hospital: the semi-charitable institution, conducted under the auspices of some organization, that invites the confidence of the people. The method of co-operative physicians' hospitals is a good one for the doctors, because they establish a hospital, form a corporation, and it becomes to an extent a money making institution because it

invites the patients of these doctors to that hospital, and they are all expected to pay. That is all right as a business proposition, but I am looking at this from the standpoint of the sick man who is to be helped and not from the standpoint of the doctor who is to get money from the sick man. I think that a hospital, in the first place, should be for the care of those people who cannot afford to pay. They can be sent, you may say, to the county hospital, but there is a certain amount of humiliation to very many self-respecting people in being sent to a county or city hospital.

Our two hospitals that are conducted as semi-charitable institutions are the St. Vincent's and the Good Samaritan. The Good Samaritan Hospital is conducted upon the principle of making the rich pay for the support of the poor. In other words, well-to-do people go to the Good Samaritan Hospital, and pay their way there, all the way from $2 to $5 a day, for their private rooms and hospital accommodation, exclusive of services of their physician or surgeon and any special nurses. In the wards, a charge of $10 a week is made. In cases where it is shown to the superintendent that the patient cannot afford to pay the $10 a week, she takes less, not in a way to humiliate the patient but as a matter of accommodation and consideration for the patient's sick condition. A large number of free patients are taken, the money paid by the pay patients helping to liquidate the expenses of the others. Many are thus cared for in the maternity ward. Special gifts have been made for the support of maternity cases. The Good Samaritan Hospital has endowments which have been given by friends of the hospital and of humanity, and these amount to about $75,000. This sum is used as a perpetual endowment for free beds, the interest being used for the support of the sick poor.

The sufferings of humanity appeal to every one, and I do not think that there should be any difficulty in raising money by gift for the support of the poor in institutions of the character that I have attempted to outline.

Dr. Lee K. Frankel, New York, read a paper entitled "Convalescents; Their Care from the Medical Standpoint and Light Employment for Them." (Page 198.)

Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, Portland, Ore., opened the discussion as follows:

No one question presses more heavily upon the ingenuity of the relief organizations than the care of the convalescent. The hospitals cannot and do not adequately fulfill their mission — cannot, because of restrictions as to space and finances — do not, as it is a problem which they claim is not theirs to solve. They

feel that they perform their full duty when the patient has been carried through the crisis, and cared for until he is able to walk about. The bed in the ward is needed for another patient. The problem is turned over to the relief organizations for solution — and out of the attempt to solve it have come certain convictions.

When we consider the type of homes to which so many convalescents from the hospital return, the wretched surroundings, the poor food, miserably cooked, the noise, the anxiety, the spectre of the lost job staring them constantly in the face, do we wonder that no trial is so dreaded as sickness? Is it not serious enough to cause us to stop and wonder why with our splendidly equipped hospitals, our health boards, our doctors constantly emphasizing the preventable side of disease — why is there such an increase in the death rate?

From my point of view, the question is easily answered — we are commencing at the wrong end of the problem. We forget that with increasing prosperity comes increasing responsibility — we forget that with the privilege of owning a house and renting it, comes the responsibility for the sanitary condition of that house, and incidentally the health of the family in it — we forget that in adjusting our rents, we violate the sacred privilege of ownership when we put the rent at such a figure, that, after the grocery bill is paid, the family clothed, the rent paid, there is nothing left to carry the man through a siege of illness. We forget that the interest on our investment is collected in something else besides cold cash — we collect it in increasing death rates from tuberculosis, caused by sleeping in infected bedrooms; nervous prostration caused by worry over insufficient wages; diphtheria and typhoid contracted through cheap plumbing and contaminated drinking water — and we pay the bills, indirectly 'tis true, but pay them we do — in contributions toward the support of Hospitals, Visiting Nurse Associations, Open Air Sanatoria, Fresh Air Excursions and a hundred other things. We are constantly robbing Peter to pay Paul, Peter in this case being the workingman who is doing his best to raise his family decently, and keep his head above water, but who after one serious attack of illness, becomes an applicant for relief at the City Board of Charities.

It is not difficult to understand high death rates when we look back over the history of effort. We see a long line of experiments in curing, but a very short one of prevention. Why is there no yellow fever in Havana? Because after the bacillus was located, was a cure found for the disease? No, a preventive remedy was applied, a combination of shovel, broom, soap and water.

You will perhaps remind me that I was expected to discuss the question of convalescents and light employment for them — discuss it profitably from the standpoint of the paper itself, I can-

not — I must again emphasize my belief that we are beginning at the wrong end of the problem. If this Conference stands for anything, it should stand for prevention of disease, prevention of crime, prevention of pauperism, and not spend much time in discussing cures. I cannot describe in detail the preventive prescription, but in the work among the sick of the city, the truth has been hammered into my consciousness — we are beginning at the wrong end of the problem.

As a nation, we make no provision for the care of the worn-out workingman — after he has exhausted his strength and skill, except the barest existence in the almshouse. In how many states are there laws which hold the employer responsible for the care of the workman injured while in the performance of his duty? We have found among some of the large corporations, hospitals established by them, ostensibly through philanthropic motives — but those familiar with the under side of life in the Illinois Steel Company, or the old town of Pullman, realize the true inwardness of this sort of philanthropy.

I do not agree with Dr. Frankel that additional institutions should be provided for the convalescent — I believe that instead of using the money for establishing an elaborate system of homes for the convalescent, and providing for his family, we should apply the cost to preventive institutions, not those built of bricks and mortar, but one built of justice and an awakened social conscience. A public conscience that will condemn unsanitary homes, with dark bedrooms, and which will also condemn the owner as unclean — a public conscience that will say to the owner of a factory, "You are responsible for the health of your workingman in the same degree that you profit by his skill."

Why should not the State say to her citizens, "You force me — the State — to care for you, after you are exhausted and cast out. I in my turn, feel that it is my duty to force you to care for yourself and for each other before the line of helplessness is crossed." The relation of all this to the convalescent is in the correction of conditions making for future convalescence. Laws for sanitary homes, for workingmen's insurance, for the protection of women against the tyranny of our industrial system, stringent child labor laws and the public sentiment which will make their enforcement possible, — factory laws calling for the proper protection of machinery, and public sentiment which will enforce them — and above all, that awakened public conscience, which says to each of us, "You are your brother's keeper."

For the present, I know of no better suggestion than that of Mrs. Kelley, that of reserving certain kinds of light employment for our convalescents — the telegraph and public messenger service for instance. We find the railroads utilizing this unfortunate

class of social waste as crossing tenders, gatemen and ticket takers. For the women, the problem seems hopeless — indoor work is not healthful and outdoor work requires strength. The hope of the future lies in prevention — we should spend less time in providing for the results of our destructive policy, and put more energy into a work of construction.

Dr. Mary A. Thompson, Portland. — The words that have been thrown out meeting after meeting here demonstrate to us that upon economic principles alone can we hope for success either in a convention of this kind, or of any other kind. Women and men meet to confer about what is best for humanity in sickness and in health. The great trouble to-day with our poor, as we call them — the brawn and brain of the land — is that the money that is used up for luxury and idleness should be used for social purposes, and to retain them in health instead of taking care of them in sickness. We women know, who have gone into these homes, what it means. Go into a home, as I have, and find neither food nor light nor heat; and, to make health, you must furnish them all.

Now in this city of Portland $30,000 could be raised without a motion, hardly, to entertain the doctors, while the poor that the doctors take care of cannot be fed. Think of it! It is this question of justice between man and man and woman and woman that has thrown us together and must awaken the strongest thoughts of our nature. When I think of it to-day, when I know what I do know and what I have had to know, I look with wonder into the faces of my friends and question if justice lives and God is our Ruler.

A paper by Mrs. S. S. Wise on the subject of "Nursing the Sick Poor at Home" was presented and read by title. Page 226.)

Dr. John Madden, Milwaukee, Wis. — I want to offer a brief contribution to Dr. Bridge's paper on the subject of tuberculosis, and the necessity for examining the premises for colonies of bacilli wherever a tuberculous patient dies.

It has happened in my own experience, and that of a colleague, to have two patients die in one room of a cheap boarding house. Both of them were men. When they went into the room they were of comparatively good health, and the deaths occurred about eighteen months apart. After the second death, we examined the room and found certain dark splotches on the wall. The room had been papered many years before. These splotches were cut out and taken to the laboratory, and developed many

active colonies of the bacillus tuberculosis. We then made an investigation and discovered that a patient had died in the room about two years before the entrance of our first patient of whom we had charge.

About contagiousness of scarlet fever I had another example. A woman moved, with a family of four or five children, into a house that had been vacant for a number of years. One day the elder daughter of five had a sore throat. The mother searched about for a red flannel rag, which is supposed to have some specific action on a sore throat. She found one in a barrel up stairs in the garret, and this she put about the throat of her child. Scarlatina soon after developed, and the child died. Investigation showed that the family who formerly lived in the house had a child die with scarlatina about eight or ten years before, and this very rag had been used about the neck of that other child.

Perhaps we shall ultimately find that the tubercle bacillus is, under certain circumstances, much more virile than under others. Perhaps we shall ultimately be able to distinguish that there are species among tubercle bacilli just as there are species among other genera of plants.

I have to tell you of two cases in which tubercle bacilli seemed to be remarkably virile, and took away three boys of a family, where the heredity was good; there was no history of tuberculosis in the family. The first boy contracted tuberculosis following pneumonia, and he died in April. The brother, who slept with him, contracted the disease, and died the following October. A third brother contracted the disease from the second, and died the following February.

There is another thing about patients who die with pneumonia. Pneumonia is mainly the disease of the rich and well-fed man, who spends a good deal of his time in eating wholly nitrogenous foods, men fond of an immoderate quantity of alcoholic beverages and of sedentary habits. Those things combine to produce pneumonia. We all know that the lack of oxidation of the waste products of nitrogenous metabolism offers the most vital field for the development of pneumonia, so that scores and scores of people who die with the disease are those who are among the strongest, most valuable and healthiest of the community.

Mrs. John M. Cushing, Oakland, Cal. — I would like to emphasize before the men and women of this conference that which Dr. Lindley remarked in regard to the care of their own children by the mother. It is very important, in my mind, and I take the liberty of mentioning the name of the Rev. Charles Brown, of Oakland, Cal., who preached on this subject one even-

ing. The trained nurse is all right, but the mother love is what binds you to your child when it is sick. There is no time when a child is so drawn to its own mother as when it is ill.

I will relate a little circumstances that comes to my mind. A friend of mine sent her little children to a boarding school. One of them was taken sick. The lady in charge said, "I will do anything for you your mother would do." "You can't," said the child, "because when I am sick my mother always puts me in her own bed."

Conference adjourned until Friday, July 21, 1905, 10:30 A. M.

ELEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Friday Morning, July 21, 1905.

The session was called to order at 10:30 A. M. by the President, who called for the report of the Committee on Organization.

Mr. James F. Jackson, Cleveland, O., read the report of that Committee, and moved that the Executive Committee have power to fill all vacancies, which motion was seconded, put to vote and carried.

Mr. George S. Wilson, Washington, D. C., moved that the report be accepted. Motion seconded, and being put to a vote was carried.

A motion that the Secretary be instructed to cast the ballot of the Conference in acceptance of the report was seconded, put to vote and carried.

Mr. O. K. Cushing, San Francisco. — I desire to move that the Committee on Organization be directed to recommend to the conference the appointment of a Committee on the Juvenile Court, together with the names of such person for Chairman and such persons for members of that committee as the committee on organization may see fit.

Motion duly seconded.

After some debate, the question of the appointment of a Committee on Juvenile Court was continued until this evening.

Mr. George S. Wilson, Chairman of the Committee on Public Dependants, was introduced and presided over the morning session.

Mr. Wilson. — Mr. Harry McCormack (Chicago) has prepared a paper on "Needed Legislation for Certain Classes of Dependants," which will be read by title (page 411).

Mr. Sherman C. Kingsley of Chicago, read a paper on "Public Dependants and the State." (Page 394.)

Mr. Wilson. — The paper on "Public Dependants and the State" will be discussed by a representative member from the north, east, south and west, respectively, after which the subject will be thrown open for general discussion.

Miss Frances Greely Curtis, Boston. — I want to speak of the kind of men that we get in our institutions. I know that we have good institutions all over the country, and we have splendid men in them. While we have many good men now, we are going to have better ones and to expect more of them in the future. I am not sure what the actual record is, but my impression is that of college graduates there are surprisingly few in public institutions, yet the matter is so important that if we asked that the heads of institutions at any time should be those who have the best training, who have been to our schools of social workers, we might get the very best men, those who have been interested in private charities. The reason men go into private charities in preference to public, which we will assume to be the case, is because they stand on their own merits in the private charities and are wholly responsible for the work they do. What we need at the heads of public institutions is responsible and capable men, men of accountability. If we get the right men, we are going to say to them that as soon as they do not satisfy us they are going to be turned out. One case in which this was done was that of the Massachusetts Women's Reformatory, which has had a famous history. The head of that institution for many years was Mrs. Ellen Johnson. Mrs. Johnson said she would take the position if she might have her way. The prison commissioners who appointed her felt satisfied that she should have her own way. One of the curious workings of this way was that she refused to have any record brought to her of the women in her care. She wanted to know nothing of their past life. She wanted to know every one of them as she saw them, and to make of them what she could. That worked well with Mrs. Johnson, because that was her way. When the system was continued it did not work well.

That is one example, and brings me to the next thing I wanted to speak about, and that is the public records. If we had the kind of official at the head that I am thinking of we might hope that the matter of public records would be kept up as it is not kept up now. I feel as though every day there has been some loss of statistics. I think there is no question but what this conference is alive to the need of more knowledge and more accurate statistics. You frequently hear of family histories and records, and in some cases the record may be thorough, but in other cases it is simply the names and ages of the children. When we have the record of the past and the record of the present, we shall also feel that we ought to complete it by the record of the result, and that is what is almost impossible to find. There seems to be no knowledge of the actual results of any case or of any course of treatment. I imagine that it may be too soon to ask for the future histories of all our inhabitants of institutions. Yet if we were able to follow up that girl, or that patient, or that man who is left out on probation, it would give a needed balance to the record.

One of the difficulties of the work of public officials arises from the attitude of the public mind that whenever a person comes to the public officer for help it is a last resort, and that public officer has to take him whether or no.

Another matter of records that has come to my knowledge is that we often imagine we have all the facts of a case when we really know little about it. There is a probation officer, one or more, attached to every court, but a man can now be arrested in one city and sentenced there, although he may have been on probation and in fact be at that time on probation in another court. We have no general bureau of information. That kind of mutual knowledge and mutual help is where we are lacking.

I think that the three things, the need of the trained superintendents, the need of complete knowledge, and the need to individualize every applicant for public relief as carefully as though he was the first and only person who was going to apply in the course of the year, are the three points of improvement that I should like to see in the matter of public charities.

THE CHAIRMAN. — The State of Indiana is in a large degree a representative of a group of states in a section of the country away from the Atlantic seaboard. That state may, therefore, be taken as a type of a considerable number of states in the middle West. Indiana has had a remarkable and interesting history in the progress of its public charitable work during the past twenty years. During the past year there has been unusual success in securing legislation.

I think it would be very profitable for us to hear from that state as being somewhat of the type of many others. To hear of

some of the very latest things which the state has done through its legislature in the past year.

I have great pleasure in asking Mr. Butler, Secretary of the State Board of Charities of Indiana, to tell us briefly of that work.

Mr. Amos W. Butler. — In the work of organizing the charities of any state we are very much in the condition of the person who undertakes to remodel his house. We cannot destroy all that has gone before, even if we desired to do so. To conform it to our rules or to bring it up to our ideas we must take everything as it is and try to fit it into the best plan that we can create.

The states are founded upon different plans, some following the New England type of government, some the Virginian type, and some the Pennsylvanian type. I suppose these represent the three well known types scattered across the country north of the extreme south. Our own state is founded largely upon the Virginian type, the unit being the township, the townships making up counties, and the counties the state.

We have had to take the conditions as they were, and ascertain as best we could the situation, obtaining light from year to year as the members of our board have attended these annual national conferences. We have sought to get from the different states what is good here and there and to endeavor to work them into our system; not that it is ideal, we might say that it is far from the best, but that it is fairly satisfactory I believe those in our state who know will testify.

A person may become a public dependant in several ways, and these public dependants, as Mr. Kingsley has classified them in a very excellent paper, may be the insane, feeble-minded, epileptic, consumptive, and that great group — the pauper — the largest group in number. Of course, the insane are committed to the hospitals for the insane by a commission of lunacy. The epileptics (as one of the new laws which we secured in the last legislature provides for a hospital for epileptics or the beginning of such an institution) will be committed somewhat as the insane are committed to a hospital for the insane. We have a school for feeble-minded, and children are admitted to this the same as to any other school. We have secured in the last few years a law which establishes in the school for feeble-minded a department for feeble-minded women of child-bearing age, and these women are committed to that institution. We have also provision made for the appointment of a commission to consider the question of a state sanatorium for consumptives. But the great group of which I spoke, the paupers, are the ones to whom I shall refer particularly. Provision is made for official relief in every township of the state by the township trustee, who is practically the

head official of his township. He holds two offices: one by election, and the other ex-officio. By election he is township trustee and ex-officio he is overseer of the poor; as township trustee he looks after the roads, schools, etc., and his duties particularly pertain to the township outside of the incorporated towns and cities; but as overseer of the poor he is overseer of the poor of the entire township, whether in the cities, town or in the country, and he determines whether a pauper shall be cared for in an institution or given out-door relief.

One of the laws enacted as the result of the efforts of the Board of State Charities was the present poor relief law, which provides that the principle of charity organization shall be applied not to a city and not to a county, but to the entire state. The principles of organized charity underlie that law from beginning to end. It is very gratifying to note that as the result of the administration of this law the amount of poor relief has been reduced by more than two-thirds, the saving amounting to more than $400,000 a year. The township trustee may indicate that such a person may be transferred to the county poor asylum, and there become a public dependant. He is the one who determines this, and when he sends them to the asylum for the poor or to the children's home for minors they then become wards of the state, they are paid for by the locality from which they come and they are under the supervision of the Board of State Charities.

We find in looking over this field that our records are very valuable. Yesterday, in speaking with some one, I referred to the fact that our largest pauper family was one which had had one hundred and fifty-four members in five generations. This is quite localized. It is largely confined to one county, but branches spread out into two neighboring counties and from the knowledge that we are able to get from these records (when these persons come into these institutions they give their collateral and family history as well as the history of the person) we are able to get a great deal of information that is of value in showing how to treat these cases.

To my mind the important part of Mr. Kingsley's paper was that dealing with prevention. We have these paupers, feeble-minded, epileptics, and the other degenerates, and we are going to take care of them. They are to be trained, educated, cured if possible, but at any rate to be cared for in some way. The important thing, however, is the matter of prevention. As we learn the causes of these things we will be able to enact preventive laws. The preventive children's laws, the Juvenile Court law, etc., it is thought will be important factors in the prevention of dependency and crime.

In addition to these children's laws we must provide a law to prevent the marriage of the unfit, and in that connection I wish to call attention to a law which the Chairman has asked me to speak about and that is the new marriage law which was passed in Indiana last winter and which has raised considerable interest in some quarters. It provides that no license to marry shall be issued when either of the would be contracting parties is imbecile, epileptic or of unsound mind, nor to any male person who is, or has been in five years, an inmate of a county home or home for indigent persons, unless it appears that the cause of such indigence has been removed and such male applicant is likely to so continue, nor shall any license issue when either of the parties is under the influence of liquor or of a narcotic drug.

In one way or another we have some definite system of transporting, accepting, receiving and caring for and finally dismissing, if that can be, or retaining if we must through their lives, the persons who become dependent.

Mr. W. A. Gates, San Francisco. — As Mr. Butler very well said at the opening of his address, the question of improvement in state charities is a question of evolution, and not one of revolution. We must commence with what we have, and improve it by evolution, until we can finally develop a better system, even a new system.

I have been asked to say something this morning in reference to the dependants of the State of California. The State Board of Charities and Correction of California is not quite two years old, and it has not had time to do very much. California has taken good care of its insane, having five state hospitals, which I think are quite modern and will compare favorably with the institutions of other states. They are mostly, however, built upon the old Kirkbride plan, which we are unanimous in saying, has reached its limit of usefulness. The future increased accommodations for the insane in California will undoubtedly be upon the cottage plan. Some cottages have already been built, and they promise such excellent results that I think there is not a superintendent of an insane hospital who is not in favor of them. I will not speak particularly of the defective classes, but pass over to the dependent or county charges. We have a large system of county hospitals, as we call them, in the State of California. The hospital in California answers the double purpose of a hospital and an alms house. We have many sick and injured poor, and they are sent to the county hospital for treatment. Also the poor who become permanently dependent are there as indigents or paupers. Some of the larger counties have two separate institutions: one a county hospital and the

other a county alms house. I am sorry to say that we have large numbers, more than we ought to have, of inmates in our county almshouses, but I am not prepared to say that they are not genuine cases. I believe that conditions are such as to force upon us in California more paupers to be cared for in county institutions than is really our proportion in comparison with other states. Very valuable use is made of the county hospital in California as a place for the temporary sick or injured, and some of these hospitals are doing very effective work. We have a corps of nurses and in some of the county hospitals we have schools for nurses. In one institution especially, the hospital in San Diego, there are two trained nurses and eight girls who are learning to be nurses. In connection with this institution there are twenty single rooms where those of the middle class, those who wish the dollar-a-day hospital, for instance, can go and be accommodated, and the amount of money received from all patients at this hospital has run as high as $200 a month. It is enough on the average through the year to pay for all the cost of the nursing force. I think this is a very good thing, and hope to see it increase. There are other county hospitals almost as good as the one I have spoken of.

Now as to some of the statistics. On the first of last January we had 2,899 paupers in the hospitals of whom only 347, or about one-tenth, are women. Almost all of the males in the hospital are old bachelors, so that you see the women of California have been able to maintain themselves, and keep out of the county poor houses, and those of them who have gotten married have been able to keep their husbands out. The conclusion is evident to the unmarried man.

The cost of outdoor relief in California is very large. How large we do not know, as it is not a subject of inquiry under the law by the State Board of Charities and Correction. It is probably as large as it was in Indiana in 1896. I presume that if a fair investigation were made we would find that the abuses practiced were about the same as they were in Indiana. Those abuses are the result of lack of training on the part of the County Board whose business it is to administer this relief. I am not in favor of cutting off outdoor relief, even though there are a good many faults. I believe there should be a system of supervision — that the deciding of who should go to an institution and who should receive outdoor relief should be left to somebody of training and experience in this line of work. It cannot be done by a Board of Supervisors or County Commissioners who have just been elected and perhaps have never had any experience whatever in this line of work. When we

can get the system of outdoor relief supervised by county boards or by somebody who is expert along these lines, then we can cut off the abuses.

In the number of sick who passed through our county hospitals last year, there were about fourteen thousand entered and about twelve thousand discharged, the discharged including very largely the temporary sick, although we have no means of distinguishing so far as hospital records are concerned.

I want to speak for a few moments about some of the causes for our large number of dependants in California. Many of you think that because California has such a fine climate, because it boasts of its agricultural resources, that it is the land of gold, that there ought not to be so many paupers. There is to-day more gold obtained from the dairy and from the orchards than there is dug from the mountains, and yet notwithstanding that we have more than our share of pauperism and dependants. The climate is one reason why. People throughout the east have come to think that California is a place where the sick can be cured by sending them there, and there are many instances where people have been sent here with the idea that sending them to California makes them well. They come here and are always exhausted and become dependent in a short time. We are far from the east and have never attempted to send them back to their homes. We are therefore suffering from your high ideas of our climate.

The miners are a very large class. You would be surprised at the number of forty-niners that are in our poorhouses. Mining counties have twice as many paupers as agricultural counties. Gold mining in itself is a sort of gambling business. Of the people who go after gold, one will find it while fifty perhaps will not. The result is that a few get immensely rich while the large majority end life in poverty, and as a result the state has to take care of them. There are some foreign elements that enter into this subject considerably. About fourteen years ago the sugar planters of Hawaii wanted cheaper labor. They went to the Azores Islands, procured a lot of laborers and took them to Hawaii. The plan proved unsuccessful and they have been thrown back upon this coast. In almost all cases they are unable to adapt themselves to the situation here, and they have caused a large amount of pauperism. Then the great railroad companies and others have brought peons from Mexico. They were brought once as strikebreakers. but as soon as they broke the strike and the old hands went back to work, the poens were thrown right out upon the population. Hundreds of them have surrounded the City of Los Angeles, and they have caused the charity workers in that city no end of trouble. The city is discussing a plan to

have them sent back to Mexico. The Oriental cuts quite a figure in California pauperism, not because he becomes a pauper but because of his methods while he is here. The Oriental, whether Chinese or Japanese, is industrious. He works from morning until night. The average cost of living of the Oriental for a month is less than $7. The coolie never marries. As a result he has no family to raise. He adds to the great amount of vice that is prevalent in the country but he becomes no great social factor. He works for what he can get. What nationality of common laborers that come to the coast can compete against that sort of labor? The Portuguese cannot, the Italian or Mexican cannot in most instances, and they are crowded out of occupations which they ought to occupy by a class of people who raise no families, who live in the very cheapest possible manner and who never become a valuable element or addition to American social life, and cannot be from the very nature of the case.

Dr. W. D. Lawrence, Minneapolis, Minn. — I have been intensely interested in the paper that has been presented this morning, and in the discussion. I fear that in our anxiety for the unfortunates who have been wrecked on the sea of life we are losing sight of the cause back of the wreckage. In dealing with the lame, the halt and the blind, we are forgetting the sixty per cent. that the paper states is due to alcoholism. If analyzed further down we will find that many of the ten per cent. of tuberculosis, ten per cent. of anaemia, the ten per cent. of insanity, from them can be sifted five per cent. in each instance due to the primary cause of alcoholism. Now if we can remove the cause of these troubles, we will have less of the reflex. We have been dealing this morning largely with the reflexes of a specific cause. I want to cite an instance that came under my observation three years ago, of which I could give at least fifty similar. A man came to me. The family belonged to our church. The family were being provided for by the alms fund of our church in part and in part by relatives. The husband for five years had been spending his time in the police courts in Minneapolis, had contributed $5 in five years to the support of his family. The wife was anaemic. One child had spinal curvature, due to prenatal trouble, and the other children were in conditions traceable in part directly to the husband. One of our women went in that home one day as the mother was breaking up the furniture to keep the children from freezing. It was reported to the Charities and was taken up by the relatives, and they were provided for. My attention was called to the husband. He was brought to my office. I examined him carefully. He was suffering from chronic alcoholism, but other conditions were complicated. I tried my

best to get the family, friends, brothers, and relatives to contribute to the cure of the cause. They would not do it. I finally loaned the man the money to be cured of his disease, because, friends, it is a disease. He was cured and during the past three years, to my personal knowledge, he has provided well for his family.

JUDGE MACK. — I want to emphasize more particularly one thought in Mr. Kingsley's paper, and that from my Juvenile Court experience. My short experience would lead me to say that next to the terrible influences of alcoholism comes what to me seems the greatest cause of juvenile dependency and delinquency: the fact that the mother has to leave home in order to support the family. The day nurseries can take care of the babies, but the young children who are going to school and who have nobody to look after them when they come out of school, are the ones that eventually come into the Juvenile Court.

I want to say, therefore, a word for the pensioning system, for the pensioning of mothers, in order that they may be able to stay at home. Dr. Frankel's suggestion, made in the sectional meeting this morning, seems to me a most admirable one: that is, to take the family out into the country, away from the city, and to give the mother work she can do in her own home, in which a fair living can be earned, and in which some of the children can help. Get the woman and her children out into the country, and give her the additional money that she needs, supplementing her own work, so she may be able to stay at home and look after those children in the dangerous years and the dangerous hours after school is over, and before she would ordinarily come home from her day's work. In that way I believe juvenile delinquency will be very greatly reduced.

There was one other suggestion which, however, seems to me to be a problem for the rather distant future. Mr. Kingsley read a statement of what is necessary before the pension should be accorded to the aged. I hope the day is not far distant when these extremely severe requirements are going to be somewhat reduced, and that we will look upon some of the errors of the past with a more indulgent eye, and that we will take the facts as they exist, namely, old age and some measure of decency, but not an absolutely irreproachable past, before we divide the sheep from the goats, the inmates of the poorhouse and of the home for the aged, from the fairly decent old man and woman who are going to be permitted to finish their life together in some decent cottage. Give that fairly decent aged couple a home in a little cottage in the country where they will be supported with a little pension and place with them one or

two of these little children to bring up as they would have done their own.

Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Chicago. — I think that perhaps the Committee of which I have the honor to be Chairman may perhaps venture to say, "I told you so," at this stage of the game. As I sat this morning and listened to Mr. Kingsley's paper I was impressed with the growing importance of the question of public charities. They grow bigger and more important and more demand the finest schooling, the greatest wisdom, the most delicate discrimination which the human mind can bestow. And if the state does demand this, then of course the question is very direct as to how we are going to get it. When we look around we are immediately embarrassed to find how little we have done about getting it: to find, for instance, the almshouse superintendent who has to assume the direct personal care of those people who require tenderness and skill and wisdom and common sense, a man usually chosen because he is the lowest cash bidder for the job. Perhaps he bids on a lump salary, or so much per head for the inmates. Throughout the United States, with some notable exceptions, that is the way they choose this person who does this fine piece of work. It is greatly to the credit of human nature that often it is fairly done, even though we use these gross measures for choosing him. Then we come along to these other experts of public charities and we find we have for the most part no test at all. In two states in the west the State Legislatures have passed laws to tend to bring up the standard of service, to make it possible for devoted and intelligent young people to enter into the service of the state. Both Wisconsin and Illinois this last winter have passed laws making it possible for young people to turn toward service to their state as a career. We have lifted up the profession of trained nursing, and we have now to lift up that great field of activity which covers public dependency to the dignity of a career which shall invite the best flower of our youth, and the loftiest sort of scientific interest. We can only do it in the first place by making this tenure positive, by, if you please, the somewhat unsatisfactory means of the civil service examinations and merit law, and then by beginning to provide the sort of training which we want. We have the right to hope that we shall go on now, and that it is time to consider all the technique of the methods, to insist that we shall have not only schools of philanthrophy, but that the state itself shall supply the training which it demands to provide an opportunity to enter that career which it offers.

Mr. C. W. Skinner, Washington, D. C. — I hesitate to go

home without saying a word about this subject of dependency, in regard to the classification of dependants. The Oregonian this morning published a very excellent editorial under the heading "It fits the crime." This is the point that I would raise, that we class all as public dependants and that there is a certain stigma that goes with the words "public dependant." Now what stigma can possibly be attached by a fair-minded person to an orphan? How can we feel of the aged person, the person who has lived an honorable, worthy life, who has, by the weight of years, come to a place where he can no longer bear the burden and heat of the day, — how can we feel that such a person should be classed under this heading of public dependants? Should we not educate the public to feel that there are honorable poor? Are there not among us those who have a feeling for the worthy poor in our public institutions? Now this classification I could not accept in the section meeting this morning. I felt that we ought to build a separate institution for the worthy poor, or as the gentleman who has recently spoken suggested, to establish a pension for the worthy poor. Let them be separate, those who are worthy and those whom we know to be unworthy and who have brought upon themselves this penalty, who have lived a degraded and dissolute life. That penalty fits their crime; but the placing of the man who has lived a worthy, respectable life, an honest, industrious life, in the same class, seems to me a very great injustice.

As to the children under my care, many of them come to feel very soon, that they are not having a fair show, and a fair start in life with the others, and the only thing I can do to encourage such a boy is to tell him it doesn't make any difference where they begin, but where they wind up, and that this is the only time to pave the way. They say, "Nobody wants me, and I would like to get out of this." I reply, "I will help you out, my boy, just as soon as I can help you to some better place, but I believe this is the best place for you at the present time," and so I encourage them.

Judge Lindsey, Denver. — I just want to add one little experiment in our Court in dealing with this problem of dependency. We have a law in Colorado which permits the Juvenile Court to try the parents, and to put them on probation where they are contributing to the delinquency. We often find that the probation officer in bringing the parent before the Court, especially some young man who is loose in his family relations, who is just taking the first steps in desertion, has saved him. He is brought into chambers and talked to and impressed with his duty toward society. The ordinary minister preaches to the people about their duty, but here is an oppor-

tunity to do work with the individual to get him to do his work, first by kindly effort, but back of that is the law which puts the parent on probation. A great advantage in this work is to have all these cases in one court. Very often we have the father assign his wages for the benefit of his child, especially if he is drinking. We encourage him and try to get him to see his duty towards his child. If that method could be carried out by all of the courts I believe from our experience it would help a great deal in our share of the work.

Mrs. Alice N. Park, San Francisco. — A speaker referred to what he thought was an excellent editorial in this morning's paper. I think he meant an excellent title. He used the title "It fits the crime," and it was a good title. The editorial is essentially bad, and I hope you all read it. It is in advocation of the whipping post. A man was whipped here Wednesday afternoon, after the subject came up in Wednesday morning's Conference and after condemnation of the whipping post.

Frank R. McDonald, Minneapolis. — Some time ago one of our local ministers in Minneapolis gave an address upon the subject "God's Poor, the Devil's Poor, and the Poor Devil." Two years ago I was appointed to take care of the "Poor Devil" in what is known as a workhouse. What came to me there was a vast surprise. I found the charitable organizations of the state dealing with the families of the poor devils. I found the different organizations of the state doing splendid work in caring for their children. I found many who came to me mainly through alcoholism. My report of the Minneapolis City Workhouse showed that out of 2,225 received, 1,750 were committed for drunkenness, and I want to supplement the remarks of my friend, Dr. Lawrence, from Minneapolis, on the cause of almost all the poverty that comes to us. I started out upon a line of work to see what could be done for them, and I took their cases up one by one. I have now in the city of Minneapolis a great number of men who for years and years had their families dependent upon the public, earning an honest living, because they have been cured of the liquor habit. I had no funds, no money, no appropriation, but I did the work as best I could, mainly from my own salary.

Mr. Johnson. — I quite agree with the last speaker and with Dr Lawrence, that alcoholism is the cause of most of our misery, only I do not agree with them in being satisfied with a proximate cause of any evil. I want to go back of proximate causes and find out what is the cause of alcoholism and drunkenness.

Rabbi S. S. Wise. — Mr. Johnson said just what I wished to say, that we take a symptom and consider that the real disease. It seems to me that alcoholism is as purely a symptom of the social disease that we are seeking and striving to eradicate, as is epilepsy, idiocy, and everything else. It seems to me wholly unfortunate to single that out and speak of it as if it is responsible for all else. Back of alcoholism is something else, something deeper, greater and wider: that is social pressure, social injustice, and to that we ought to go if we are looking for real causes.

Mr. George B. Davis, Richmond, Va. — I am satisfied that in every state we have pretty much the same thing to deal with. As the question has been discussed by different ones here of large experience, I just want to tell incidentally what my experience in Richmond has been. I am Superintendent of the Alms House and of Public Charities. I listened to Mr. Kingsley's paper with a great deal of interest. I agree with him largely, and I am interested in that which proves more conducive to the betterment and relief of the suffering poor. Along that line three years ago I inaugurated a system of associated charities. I was a pioneer in the movement, and I could welcome the day when they can raise money enough by voluntary contribution to abolish the office that I now hold.

In the State of Virginia we have a fine deaf and dumb and blind institution equal to any in the United States, and I sincerely hope this Conference will come to see us in 1907, and we can show you some of our improvements along that line. I am Secretary of the State Conference of Charities. We are trying to raise interest all through the state.

I will go back to Richmond feeling satisfied that I have learned something, especially from the paper of Mr. Kingsley.

Dr. A. J. Pillsbury, Sacramento, Cal. — It seems to me that with the alcohol question, like the immigration question, there is a great deal that we do not know. The popular conception of the alcohol problem is not correct. There is something back of that to be gotten hold of, and what I want to know is what instrumentality the Conference has for getting at the scientific truth back of alcoholism.

Mr. Bailey, Kansas. — I want to say that I believe a relief from these conditions is in the church, and action on the part of the church on the subject of intemperance would be fruitful of great relief in the direction we want.

Mr. A. J. Hutton, Waukesha, Wis. — In regard to the cause of alcoholism, Mrs. Lucy M. Sickels has said that poor cooking was one cause.

Dr. Andrew W. Hoisholt, Stockton, Cal. — Just one word

as to what alcoholism is. I think Dr. Wise is wrong when he says that alcoholism is a symptom, and that its cause is the social pressure. Alcoholism is a disease, but like all other diseases, it has its direct causes and its occasional causes, and the social pressure is one of the occasional causes. I think it is a loss or lack of control that is the main cause in alcoholism. I agree with Dr. Pillsbury, and I think this subject should be taken up by a sub-committee.

Miss Ethel Ramsey, Philadelphia. — I think it is a great pity that with a Chairman from Washington nobody should have mentioned the subject of desertion as a source of supply of public dependants. We find in Philadelphia, for instance, we have on our books 1,500 cases of men who are paying for the support of their wives. That means a very small minority, because many of those women who are deserted go to the alms house and are not referred to private societies. Child-saving agencies and juvenile courts do not go all the way through with the procedure. The trouble is somewhat with the charity workers. We have good laws on the subject but the laws do not enforce themselves. When a woman is deserted, when it is a case of what you might call incipient desertion, the charity worker should be sufficiently familiar with the situation, and with the steps to be taken to recognize it at once, and if possible prevent the man from leaving the city, from leaving the state or from leaving his family in need. We find, also, as far as the marriage questions affects the situation, that in a number of the cases we deal with they are not married, so that a marriage law does not seem to apply to that side of the question. Most of these people simply need a little pushing up, a little help, a little friendly care from somebody in authority, and then a little help to do what is the proper thing to do under the circumstances.

Mrs. Emily Peckham, Lincoln, Neb. — I think Nebraska has been heard from almost the least of any state. We are proud of our state. We raise grain and vegetables, and then we have inebriates and orphans and dependants of all kinds, but we have laws, too, and we recently got a new law to put inebriates in the asylum, and we just think that is going to be fine. But we license men to sell the liquor to breed inebriates, and then we put them in the asylum to cure them and the next crop comes and we have been wondering where it will end. The Legislature has taken our Orphan Asylum, that is our Home of Friendliness, the state institution built by the ladies, and they are going to convert it into a cripple institution. I suppose they thought we had such good laws that we would not need any, and the men would all take care of their wives, because we recently enacted a new law, just in operation, that a man can be arrested

and brought back to support his family, a very good law, but some of them we would rather not have brought back.

Alcoholism is the great question with us. We are not drunkards, as a rule, but some will drink. We have a good many saloons; not so many as other states I have visited recently — not as many as in Toronto, Canada, which I recently visited. We have licensed these saloons, and then we are going to cure these inebriates at the asylum, it seems, but what are we going to do with the coming ones? It seems to me there ought to be a reform movement, to keep them from drinking.

Mrs. Ophelia L. Amigh, Geneva, Ill. — I want this sister to take courage, for at last some one has arisen in the conference and has actually talked about the cause of all these things we have been trying to remedy for some years. Those of us who come into close contact with this work know that alcoholism and the licenses to sell liquor, and the open saloons, are really and mainly the cause of dependency, delinquency, degeneracy, and all the other ills.

Mrs. John M. Cushing, Oakland, Cal., attributed the cause of much of the alcoholism to poor cooking.

Miss Anne S. Hall, Cincinnati, O. — Mrs. Rohrer was engaged by the ladies of Dr. May's church, in Philadelphia, to give to the wives of the workingmen a series of lessons teaching them how to buy the cheaper portions of meat and by scientific cookery to give to their husbands and families that nutriment which might be gained from that meat when prepared in a palatable way. She gave a course of lessons, and I was told that each of those women went back to her home and made stew as she was accustomed to doing from the time she went into married life.

I would like to say we should strike a direct blow at the brewers. When they met in state convention in Ohio I read that one of the topics considered was, *How shall we create an appetite in the young?*

The President of the W. C. T. U. of the State of Colorado told me that in the City of Denver the brewers give entertainments to the children, and during the entertainment pass beer.

Mrs. L. M. Beck, Bloomington, Ind. — I have heard a great deal about the responsibility of the women. I don't think the responsibility in this drink question rests with the women. We bear the children, we stay at home and take care of the children, and the men go out and get drunk, and spend the substance.

Dr. W. D. Lawrence, Minneapolis, Minn. — It is conclusively accepted by all alienists that alcoholism is a disease. The cause of tuberculosis, the cause of diphtheria, lies back in the bacilli, and the cause of inebriety lies back in the bacilli, but that is an economic question. It does not come up to interfere with

the curing of the main disease, and eighty-five per cent. of those affected are curable in twenty-eight days, whereas in tuberculosis years are required and thousands are expended.

The Conference adjourned until 8 P. M.

TWELFTH GENERAL SESSION.

Friday Evening, July 21.

The Conference was called to order by the President at eight o'clock P. M.

Miss Jane Elizabeth Hitchcock, Chairman of the Sub-Committee on Visiting Nursing, was introduced, as the presiding officer of the evening, and read the report of the Committee, the topic being "The Field of Visiting Nursing." (Page 257.)

Miss Lucy B. Fisher, San Francisco, read a paper entitled "The Visiting Nurse as an Economic Factor." (Page 263.)

The discussion was opened by Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, who spoke as follows:

We are all agreed that the visiting nurse has a field peculiarly her own. To make this possible, however, the "board of managers" has been a necessity. I have been asked to discuss Miss Fisher's paper from the standpoint of the board of managers. I must confess that I come to the task in fear and trembling — in fear, as the experience from which my material is taken, is the experience which comes to all small organizations in their infancy — and these difficulties seem so trifling after they have been outgrown. In fear also, that some of these same difficulties may have been due to the personality of the "lady manager." In trembling, lest anything I may say, may, perchance, wound the gentle spirit of my friends, the nurses; for whom I entertain a feeling amounting almost to veneration.

My first criticism, if criticism it may be called, is one which the nurse herself acknowledges — the lack of social training. In her hospital training, the sociological side of her work is not developed. But in district work, it requires more than a few months' association with her patients, before the necessary poise is gained, and she finds that delicacy, tact, and good, hard, common sense are qualities as necessary as technical skill. She begins to realize that the unfortunate poor have their hopes, ambitions, sorrows and joys exactly the same as the more fortunate.

She finds that her patients cannot be dealt with in the same manner as were her hospital patients — that they are more than mere "cases." She finds that in addition to her technical skill, there must be added the sympathy, foresight and judgment of the social worker. In the latter phase of the work, the guidance of the Charity Organization is most valuable. With the years of experience, with the records of many hours of patient investigation, dealing with the same families with whom the nurse comes in contact, there is offered a mine of information and assistance which should not be ignored. It is usually the case that several of the members of the boards of directors of the Nurses' Association are identified in some way with the organized charities, and in this way, are in touch with both sides of the work — why should this quality of helpfulness be ignored? Why should there not be a harmony of purpose between the nurse and the board member — the technical skill of the one working hand in hand with the social work of the other? Why should there be a feeling among the nurses that no one but themselves is capable of dealing with the sick poor? Because there have been mismanagement, lack of consideration, arbitrary action in individual cases, does it mean that it is impossible to find women who are sympathetic, who have intelligence enough to know where the duties of a director end and where the technical work of the nurse begins? There should be no beginning or ending — but a harmonious blending of effort. Understand that I do not wish to disparage in the slightest degree, the work of the nurse — no one realizes more than I the importance of her position. Through her daily visits to her families, she comes in closer touch with them than any board of directors can possibly do, but I feel that the charge that has been made that "a board of directors has not the slightest conception of the limitations and scope of the work of the visiting nurses" is altogether too sweeping.

On the contrary, I affirm that the board of directors is in much better position to judge of the quality of work, is in a better position to appreciate the "scope and limitations" of the work than are the workers themselves. And I do not hesitate to say that such a director as Miss Fisher describes in her paper, is not fit to be on any board, and this instance surely does not prove the rule.

In a small organization, employing but one nurse, it is simply impossible for her to do all the work — she must slight either the professional side of her work, or the social side, and no conscientious woman wants to do either. She has at hand the friendly visitor on the board, who will stir up the city authorities in the matter of sanitation, who will arrange for the children at the Aid Society while the nurse is preparing the mother for the hospital —

who will argue the question of repairs and back rent with the landlord — who will arrange with the railroad authorities for transportation for the sick man back to his old home — whose duty it is to keep the work, both in its sympathetic aspect and its economic value, constantly before the public, so that the financial support may be forthcoming.

The nurses must also bear in mind another feature of the problem. In shutting out from participation in this work, all those who have had no professional training, she is closing the door of opportunity for helpfulness to the woman who has both heart and money for the work. Caring for the sick poor has been the work of all women since time began, and for the nurses to build a fence around this field of effort, is to take a step backward that will surely result disastrously to all concerned. I appeal to those in the profession who have the wider outlook — who can see that the work of helpfulness must not be restricted — who believe that there is work for all — I appeal to these to encourage the sentiment that those who make the work possible shall also have a share in its activities. Those who build walls shut opportunities out from themselves as well as from others.

I plead for co-operation, not for exclusion — let there be a closer bond of sympathy between the nurse and her board of directors. Too often women accept positions on executive boards merely for the prominence the position will give them — but there are many earnest women who would be barred from participation in activities they love, and for which they are fitted, if technical skill be made the test.

Miss Lina Rogers, New York City, presented a paper on "The Doctor and Nurse in the Public Schools." (Page 273.)

Papers were also presented by Miss Marie Jamme of Minneapolis, on "The Visiting Nurse in Co-operation Work," (page 280), and a compilation of statistics of visiting nursing prepared by Miss Waters of New York was distributed. (Page 285.)

DISCUSSION ON VISITING NURSING.

Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago. — In Chicago the Visiting Nurse Association and the Associated Charities are working together in a very harmonious and useful way. In that city, where the area is very large, it is of course necessary to have districts in the Associated Charities work as well as in the Visiting Nurse work, and many of the districts are joint districts. The district nurses are using the offices of the Bureau of Charities for

their headquarters, using the bureau's facilities as far as necessary, and in that way the nurses are saved a great deal of charity work or social work or other kinds of work which they might feel called upon to perform if they do not have such an affiliation. Of course the economic value of the work of a nurse depends very largely upon her opportunity for uninterrupted attention to the thing that she is there for, and if the nurse who is there to do nursing thinks it necessary to give some of her time to raising money, and begging clothes and running errands and attending to a good many other things which are only related more or less intimately to her nursing work, she is not serving in the way to get the greatest economic result. It is a well established principle everywhere the minute that you or I or anyone leaves the thing we are best fitted for and begins to do something that we are not fitted for quite so well, or not fitted for at all, we are just wasting that much time. The rule applies in every kind of social work, just as it does in the work of the visiting nurse.

Some such arrangement, where it is possible, as that which exists in Chicago between the Visiting Nurse Association and the Bureau of Charities seems to me to promise very valuable and satisfactory results. I do not mean that the visiting nurses do not co-operate closely with other organizations. They do, very closely and very cordially; but because of the district plan of the Associated Charities work and the many agencies, the many visitors which it has, that co-operation is perhaps most easy and natural and extensive, and we find that by asking the district nurses to take membership upon the advisory committees of our districts the nurses come in that way into the right sort of intelligent relations with social work that is being done in the city and our visitors, on the other hand, are saved from the loss of time and the blunders which might occur did they have to go off somewhere and find a nurse. The thing is mutually helpful, and I believe the result tends to bring the largest and best results of the work of the nurse, as well as of the agent of the Associated Charities. In any city where it is possible to make such arrangements as that, or some kindred arrangement, I believe it will be found to be extremely satisfactory. Little differences of opinion will arise — a new visitor of the Associated Charities will come in and not quite understand the thing, and the first thing you know will be doing some things which she ought not to do and which belong to the nurse; a new nurse will come in and set out to be a little bureau of charities of her own. These things are very easily and naturally adjusted, and everything works out in the end to the very best.

The discussion on Miss Jamme's paper was opened by Mrs. Jessie Keys of Peoria, Ill., as follows:

The topic of co-operation between the visiting nurse and other organizations is one of very great importance and interest. While the visiting nurse is primarily for the purpose of caring for the sick poor in their homes, that purpose, in my estimation, is only the passport into the homes; the work to be done therein is much more than professional. To find the conditions causing the sickness, poverty or disorder, then to set about a system of education for every member of that family, not only in the homes, but through clubs, addresses, cooking schools, friendly visitors. The nurse whose visits mean professional service only is not helping the people to help themselves, and that is what we are all striving after.

I believe that the nurses' settlement plan is the one which will be of the greatest assistance in solving these educational problems, particularly in small towns. It will be easily seen that many families, long after the nurse's professional services may be dispensed with, will continue to need her educational assistance. This is where other organizations, charitable or philanthropic, as well as churches, clubs, civic corporations and individuals, must be called upon. How to win and keep the interest of the various "helping agencies" is no small consideration. I believe that it depends not upon a nurses' committee, or on the nurse's professional ability, but upon the head nurse's real live interest in her work, and in her power to inspire others with her interest and enthusiasm. To do a duty because it is a duty, is a good thing, but to do all of a duty and more than all, because it is the soul and life of oneself, is a power.

It has been said that the present system of hospital training is not equipment enough for Visiting Nurses. This no doubt is true. I believe that it is not alone a question of professional ability, but of special adaptability, powerful factors in the requirement being, first, the nurse's humanitarian spirit; second, the nurse's freedom from personal cares and anxieties. Our training schools could not give any course which would prepare a young woman to be an organizer, teach her to comprehend the racial peculiarities and prejudices of the many nationalities with whom the visiting nurse has to deal. Can any training school undertake to teach city ordinances, health department regulations, and house and tenement laws — yet daily the visiting nurse is the court of appeal, or has to instigate investigations or proceedings, and a knowledge of these things is of great use, I might say they are essentials. The pupil

nurses must be thoroughly instructed in the art of nursing. They may be students of Homer and Shakespeare and have at their command three or more languages; all these good things will be of great assistance in penetrating understandingly into the lives of the poor people with their joys and sorrows, aspirations and disappointments, lawlessness, disease and poverty. No one will have greater opportunity for the study of mankind than the visiting nurses brought daily, as they are, face to face with "life's prime needs and agonies." There is nothing more truly educative than philanthropic work of the right sort, undertaken in a spirit of simple, loving kindness and reduced to a habit. It will require all our training, experience, education, cultivation of senses and graces to enable us to enter into sympathetic normal relations with our fellow-men.

From the point of view of the worker in a small city, I believe the routine office work of the visiting nurse can best be done in connection with our associated charities office. The thorough record-keeping system is of great assistance to the nurse; a family applying for the nurse's service is already known to the charities, a perusal of their family history and record will give valuable information. Then too, she will need ask no questions of the people. Unfortunately, asking questions sometimes shuts the very door we must open if we wish to find the cause of existing conditions, and be of vital assistance to the family. I am convinced that co-operation with the charities may be a help and a power. In Peoria the county poor master reports cases of poverty where the cause is "sickness" to the visiting nurse, who investigates and sends reply to county office. This co-operation is certainly a great help to all concerned.

I find that one holding the position of City Sanitary Inspector and Charities Visiting Nurse is brought daily into touch with every organization and civic department, and it rests with the nurse's personality to make that contact co-operative, and a power for good and great usefulness to the public. I feel there is no line of demarcation to be drawn in the nurse's duty.

When I speak of the nurse's educational responsibility I mean not alone the teaching, advising, and personal oversight in the homes, but the prompting of women and girls to join clubs, go to meetings and classes where they may hear healthful talks.

The Mothers' Club in Peoria is one of our educative methods organized by the Visiting Nurse, and managed by a carefully-chosen committee of women. This club has proven time and again its right to exist. Repeated talks on such subjects, as "Foods and Their Preparation," "Practical Care of Babes and Children," "Good Sense in Clothing," "Use and Abuse of Pub-

to School Entrance," "Kindergartens," "How to Take Care of our Babies," "Simple Sanitary Laws," "Juvenile Courts and Probation Officers," "What to Teach the Girls," "City Ordinances and Their Enforcement" cannot fail to educate the people and improve conditions of health and living. "Home Nursing" classes are given to the young women and mothers; surely the mothers and children of to-morrow will be better and stronger for such instruction. May I take a few more moments of your time telling a few instances where co-operation with clubs, etc., has been of great help to the nurse in a small city.

To meet the demand for simple foods and items for patients one church became interested and as a result has a system whereby the nurse can secure these things upon application.

The women's guild of another church had supplied and keeps in repair a well-equipped supply cupboard for the nurses' use.

A department of the Women's Club has established a class for girls in cooking and home-making.

The public, aroused and interested by means of a paper read by the nurse at the Women's Club, has insisted upon the appointment of a much-needed truant officer.

To use the normal or physical needs of the people to arouse public enthusiasm or co-operation enough to conceive a plan whereby the community may supply the needs—this is co-operation.

The great number of the nurses of our nurses are not engaged in the work of "helping others to help themselves," a work so full of profit, interest and variety, a work in which the reward of yourself grows not, the greater the returns not in cold cash, but in the "joy of living."

Miss Helena McMillan of Chicago and Miss Margaret Anne Dooley of the Presbyterian Hospital, New York, spoke at a section meeting on Thursday morning on the subject of Visiting Nursing in Co-operation with Hospital Work, substantially as follows:

Miss Helena McMillan.—District nursing and district nurse organizations were established and exist primarily to nurse, educate, encourage and aid the sick poor. The chosen agent must be a nurse who is thoroughly imbued with the best the nursing profession has to offer, including its practical, ethical and theoretical principles. She should be a woman of mature judgment, broad sympathy, of devotion to the cause, and one who is awake to the social problems of the day. Even with the above qualifi-

cations she may not be adapted for the life of self-sacrifice demanded by the situation.

The district nurse is becoming an important factor in the sphere of social economics — a fact which gives much satisfaction to the profession. But here there is a danger against which we should be on our guard. The nurse, by the weight of influence she carries with her, may be a factor for evil instead of good. The poor are sensitive; they are sometimes ignorant; sometimes suspicious. Continually on their guard with those out of their class, they readily distinguish between the earnest, well-informed, well-poised worker, the one with good intentions, but powerless because incompetent, and the one working for hire or possibly under compulsion. A selfish, poorly-trained or narrow-minded woman should avoid district nursing, for it is inevitable that soon she will be found lacking in the qualities essential to win respect from those whom she serves — the sick poor.

Another point to be considered in this, the most difficult form of nursing, is that in addition to necessary qualifications and education, the nurse must have training in the work itself — that means length of service. She who stays six months or a year is merely a beginner, a student, not an accomplished worker. To be that and win success she must know her people and her district. Only the graduated or completely trained nurse can bring the desired qualifications, natural and acquired, to her work, and only she is free to accept an extended service.

The student or under-graduate nurse, no matter how excellent, cannot be counted upon for systematic service by organizations assuming the care of the sick in their homes. Ordinarily the student nurse is just awakening to the great opportunities open to her and is too absorbed grasping her technical education to realize what are the aims of instructive visiting nursing.

If every graduate nurse is not adapted for the work, naturally, much less would this be the case with every student nurse. Not infrequently student nurses are found in their last year unexpectedly unworthy to graduate and leave their schools without diplomas — burdening the nursing profession with many, as yet, unsolved problems.

Undoubtedly the demand for the right woman in district nursing is far in excess of the supply. This, however, is merely a repetition of the condition of workers in all fields. There is much work, few competent workers. Hospitals, general institutions, social settlements, everything, everybody is asking for the nurse and must have only the best. Nurses' schools need these

women on their teaching staffs and are frequently crippled by sacrificing themselves to help meet the demand elsewhere.

It is quite possible that in the efforts of the schools to supply the needs of the older organizations and in their sympathy with that work which they best understand they have not sufficiently recognized their obligations to the district nurse associations; have not educated their students to appreciate the privilege of connecting themselves with a field which is unlimited in opportunity; have not taught them the duty they owe to their profession, for if they do not take up this work it must remain undone.

If visiting nurse associations are unable to secure a sufficient number of high-grade nurses and must fall back on the inferior graduate or the student nurse to carry on its work, certainly it is time for the schools to come to their aid, take up this problem and add to their curricula that instruction which will tend to prepare their graduates not only to accept the opportunity of district nursing, but to seek it.

To accomplish this there must be co-operation between the educational and the charitable nursing organizations. It should be the privilege of the school to have its students associate with those members of the visiting nurse staff who by example can enthuse the young nurse, show her what may be accomplished and so imbue her with the spirit and nobility of the work that when free to choose she may make this her choice and try to emulate the ideal given her.

Explanatory talks by trained workers on the social conditions and needs of the large cities should be freely volunteered by philanthropists and social workers and become a necessary part of the senior year lecture course.

Already a few schools, for the purpose of encouraging their graduates to enter new fields, have co-operated with visiting nurse organizations or have themselves provided instructors, and under their supervision and guidance introduced their students into the homes of the poor. The object of the schools in doing this, however, is and must be solely for educational and not for philanthropic purposes.

Schools for nurses are already required to educate the nurse and to care for the hospital sick, two undertakings, either one of which would be all-absorbing for the average institution. That they should, under present conditions, undertake, in addition, the care of the sick in their homes is impossible, nor can they train their students to cope with social and philanthropic problems.

Nurse educators feel that district nursing needs their support and influence, and are anxious to turn the thought of the young nurse in that direction. For that reason alone and not because they hope to educate social workers do they sanction the introduction of the student, under proper conditions, into the homes of the poor.

The entrance of the undergraduate into this field complicates the question for patient, district nurse organization and for school, and must he handled judiciously. On account of the continuous disadvantage of newness of work and surroundings and the immaturity of thought of the average student, much supervision must be provided and careful instruction be given. Should such be arranged and the co-operating school be one of high grade, the entrance for the under-graduate into the home may be made with the smallest amount of injury to the cause and with the hope of much future good for that work, which we acknowledge to be the highest open to members of the nursing profession.

Miss Bewley. — The Visiting Nursing in connection with The Presbyterian Hospital School of Nursing, New York City, was established in February, 1904. This work was made possible through a generous gift of Mrs. Wm. K. Vanderbilt, who is very much interested in broadening the plans for the education for nurses. After one and one-half years' experience we think visiting nursing can be successfully conducted as an adjunct to hospital work.

The nursing visits are made principally within the ambulance district, which covers the east side of the city between 59th and 96th streets. The staff of nurses consist of six — a graduate who has the direction and supervision of the work done by the four third-year students from the school, and a permanent graduate who does the tuberculosis work, from the Vanderbilt Clinic. The course is elective, the term is two months, and the nurses are sent out during the last six months of their third year. They are provided with a uniform of blue wash gingham, a coat and hat of Cambridge gray, a bag with necessary articles for use, also allowance for car-fare. The greatest possible care is exercised, in regard to relief, and after careful investigation, many of the tuberculosis patients are given milk and eggs.

The objects and advantages of the work from a hospital standpoint are: 1st. To relieve the wards earlier of convalescent patients, who no longer need actual hospital care, but general supervision in the home, regarding rest, food, hygiene, etc.; to do the surgical dressings of patients until they are strong enough to return to the emergency ward for dressing. 2nd. To visit

ambulant patients who, after examination, prove not sick enough for hospital care; also those who are ill, but refuse transfer to other hospitals. This work is all done under the direction of the hospital staff. 3rd. To visit dispensary patients who cannot leave home; to keep patients under observation until the doctor has made a positive diagnosis; to visit patients with chronic diseases, who would otherwise become objects of public charity. This work is done under the direction of the dispensary staff. 4th. To visit, investigate and care for, if necessary, patients reported to the office of the Superintendent of Hospital.

The visiting nurse has opportunities that come to no other friendly visitor. She comes because of a definite need which she can definitely relieve. Her relations to the family are simple and natural. If the mother in watching the nurse care for the sick child, learns to appreciate the necessity of cleanliness, fresh air, and the value of regularity in feeding, she has accomplished something, but if the nurse can win for the child in health, an appreciation of his right to proper food, fresh air, sleep and sunshine, she has done a great deal more. Remedies for an actual ill are easier to remember than preventives for a possible one.

The visiting nurse has a great opportunity for co-operation in the direct work of remedying existing evils, by the enforcement of present laws, and in forming public opinion to demand better and more effective legislation. If through her agency the home is made more cleanly and sanitary, she has but gone on with a task she began when she helped the patient from serious illness to face life and its burdens. We have no right to go into these families to give only our skill, to touch their lives and leave no trace except relief from pain, or the healing of wounds.

Hospitals and dispensaries represent gloom and death to many persons, partly through ignorance and partly through the unfortunate and inexcusable attitude of some subordinate officials toward these less fortunate ones whom they should serve. We could give innumerable instances of the value of this work to the hospitals and dispensaries in inducing patients who need the care, to present themselves for treatment.

The visiting nurse can do much to prevent the spread of tuberculosis and to improve the environment of those afflicted with this disease, especially when there is hope for a cure. The pupil nurse is of less value in this branch of work than in any other, because she needs a large experience in order to influence these people to carry out the necessary precautionary measures. The visiting nurse is also invaluable in preventing epidemics of contagion. She sees, for instance, in an early stage, a case of measles, which is promptly investigated and reported to the

Board of Health, thus saving an epidemic in the community which might keep a large number of children from school.

It has been said that there was such a thing as too much hospital, too much discipline, too rigid a life for some temperaments; that it destroyed originality in a few and blunted the sympathies of others, and that a little glimpse into the homes of the people is an excellent experience, especially to a nurse who has been placed in charge of a hospital ward, where such knowledge made her more appreciative of the home problems of her patients. When the nurse leaves the hospital, where supplies are abundant, and goes into these homes where there is practically nothing to work with, she learns to improvise and economize in every way, and with good results. She has more than the patient to deal with; there is the family and often all of their relatives, as well as the trying tenement house conditions — but, entering it with the right spirit, she is ever tactful, encouraging and sympathetic and readily adapts herself to their surroundings, and fully appreciates why they are poor, dirty and sick, when she sees how they live in such crowded quarters. Many of our nurses who have had this two-months' course and are now in charge of wards, have found it invaluable in every way.

The course being elective gives us the advantage of nurses who declare themselves interested in this special branch of nursing, and the majority have shown strong qualifications and special adaptability to the work. They enter it with the right spirit, and carry an atmosphere into the homes they visit, and when the service rotates to another, expressions of sorrow and regret at parting are heard on both sides; but the patients readily adapt themselves to these changes, as they find the nurses' work so uniform that only the personality varies.

This concluded the program of the Sub-Committee on Visiting Nursing.

President Dr. Smith resumed the Chair.

Mr. O. K. Cushing, San Francisco, moved that the matter of the appointment of a standing committee on Juvenile Courts be referred to the Executive Committee, with power to act.

Mr. Jackson, Chairman of the Committee on Organization, seconded the motion.

Motion put to vote and carried.

The report of the Committee on Credentials being called for the Chairman announced that there have been registered the names of 471 attendants, either as members, delegates or

visitors, coming from thirty-three different states, territories, or provinces. Seventy-four names are from Oregon, and forty-five from California, which is the banner state for attendance from outside of Oregon. The number from other states, territories and provinces is as follows: Minnesota 41, Illinois 38, Indiana 35, Missouri 29, New York 26, Massachusetts 25, Ohio 25, Nebraska 22, Colorado 11, Washington 11, Pennsylvania 11, Wisconsin 11, Rhode Island 6, Louisiana 6, Utah 6, District of Columbia 6, Iowa 5, Michigan 4, Hawaii 4, Idaho 4, West Virginia 4, Maryland 3, Kentucky 3, Connecticut 3, Montana 3, Virginia 2, Ontario (Can.) 2, New Jersey 2, Mississippi 1, Kansas 1, British Columbia (Can.) 1.

The number of official delegates appointed by Governors of States, Mayors of cities and Women's Clubs, was 487. Of these 192 were present. Most of them either already were members or became members.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was read by the Secretary, as follows:

WHEREAS, The resolution of the National Conference of Charities and Correction of 1903, petitioning the Governors of the several states of the United States to co-operate in checking the growing evil of family desertion by issuing requisitions for fugitive deserters and honoring such demands from other states, met with many favorable responses; and

WHEREAS, Governors and other state officials in the many states where the crime of desertion is only a misdemeanor, have since shown an entire willingness to recognize the seriousness of the offense and grant requisition in proper cases; and

WHEREAS, The mistaken impression that extradition is not possible where desertion is not a felony still hinders action by some of those who would otherwise seek to bring back men who desert to other states; therefore be it

Resolved, That this Conference desires all its members and others concerned with cases of family desertion clearly to understand that they have the right to ask for requisition in all states where the offense of desertion is in name or in fact a misdemeanor.

That it earnestly recommends all such members and others to recognize this right by an earnest effort to reach and punish deserters under existing laws, in every case where it can be properly done.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Conference of Charities and Correction are due and are hereby extended:

To the citizens of Portland for their hospitable invitation to this beautiful city.

To the ladies of Portland for the pleasant reception at the Art Institute.

To the pastor and officers of the First Presbyterian church and of other Churches which have opened their doors to the members of the Conference.

To the chairmen and the members of the local committees for the completeness of their arrangements for the comfort and convenience of the members of the Conference; particularly to Mr. Thomas N. Strong, Chairman of the General Committe; Dr. T. L. Elliott, Chairman of the Committee on Pulpit Supplies and the Finance Committee; Mr. W. T. Gardner, Chairman of the Committee on Hotels and Halls; Mrs. B. H. Trumbull, Chairman of the Committee on Badges and Information; Mrs. S. W. Sitton, Chairman of the Committee on Entertainment; Dr. Stephen S. Wise, Chairman of the Committee on Invitations.

To the boys of the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, who have so kindly helped the secretary as pages, they having made the daily distribution of papers printed in advance.

And last, but not least, to Mrs. Helen Ladd Corbett, Chairman of the Committee on Reception, under whose personal direction have been provided the artistic floral decorations that have gladdened the eyes of the delegates from day to day.

The Portland Conference will dwell long in the memories of its members.

The resolutions recommended were voted upon and unanimously adopted.

THE PRESIDENT. — Mr. Strong, who welcomed the coming, will be given an opportunity to speed the parting guest.

MR. STRONG. — *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen*: You have been met with a simple reception here, as we thought befitting a body whose main mission in life was to give gifts rather than to receive them. But you must not judge from the simplicity of that reception of its whole-heartedness.

Perhaps a few suggestions that I might have to make of impressions upon one who has sat here as an observer will be as appropriate a good-bye to you as I could give. One thing I have noticed with a great deal of interest, and that is you have brought your problems with you, and you have discussed here in the city of Portland the problems of New York, of

Philadelphia, of the east. I nearly fainted here when I heard somebody say that Portland did not know what investigation was, and I felt better when I understood that it simply meant we did not know the need of investigation. But those full-fledged troubles that you have, we have here in their incipiency, and we need, and we have, I think, the delicate touch that deals with them in the beginning, and our work is that of prevention.

We have crushed with relentless hand the beginning of pauperism in this city, and the beginning of the asylum, and we do not intend to have anything of that kind here.

In the next place, I notice that the truths of charity seem to become, many of them, standardized. That is, foundations are being laid solidly and new erections are being made upon the social structure, and these new erections, like the Juvenile Court and the Nurses' Association, you hear a great deal of, as if they were to a certain extent all of the charity building. But they are founded upon something solid, something that is laid below, something that has been built here through all the years by your effort, and useful as they are, in a few years they will become a part of the structure and the new erections will go on with a certain amount of noise and hammering, which will still add to the beauty and to the glory of the structure.

In the next place I wish we could keep you here about a week longer to deal with the subjects we ourselves have to deal with, our peculiar western problems.

Take the people that lived here in the ancient days, the Indians. You have not seen them here, but up in the north they are a living problem all along the shores of Alaska. We furnish the problem, the east furnishes the money and the ignorance and the result is a most unhappy combination. But between the two, if you will come to us for a little instruction upon our local problems, we will perhaps arrive at a satisfactory solution.

There is another question that for a moment touched the assembly here, and that is the Asiatic immigration question. In regard to that there is only one suggestion that I wish to make in all kindness to this Conference, and that is with reference to that, as with the negro question, you will have to seek the wisdom of the locality that is chiefly affected by the thing itself. I do not profess to be an alarmist. I have a great fondness for the little Jap and the Chinaman. And yet I recognize the serious nature of the problem itself, and of the struggle, economic and perhaps physical, that is coming for the mastery of the Pacific Ocean, and it is with no regret that I will see the centre of our naval power in the Gulf of Mexico, and the canal built across the Isthmus of Panama, because some things tend for peace

and for good that have power behind them. In these matters upon us must fall the brunt of the trouble. Therefore we ask you to consider it carefully without any preconceived notions, and help us deal with it when our time comes to deal with it, as we must.

Now there is another thing which I wish you could impress upon our good friend President Roosevelt, and that is that he should exercise care. I suppose he has, but there is a tendency in the east, in sending out employees of the government into this country, to think that any worthless men that you have there that cannot attend to his business in the east, can come out west and help us in the handling of these delicate problems. Our whole trouble with China is not the trouble of the exclusion law, but it is the gross brutality, the absolute want of sense, that was shown in dealing with these sensitive people by ignorant employees of the Government. There is where the trouble lies. And so use all your influence, that you shall give us as much help as possible in dealing with these delicate questions, and then we will try to deal with them wisely and in the proper spirit.

My time is called. I took seven and a half minutes to welcome you and I took five minutes to say to you good-bye, which shows that I was fifty per cent. more glad to see you come than I am glad to see you go. Good-bye and God bless you!

THE PRESIDENT. — We shall next hear from a gentleman who has been modest in this assembly, but to whose efforts and courtesy we owe a great deal—Dr. Eliot.

DR. T. L. ELIOT. — I think I can confine, at this late hour, what I have to say to the expression of my personal gratitude to you all and to each one, for the visit that you have made, many of you at quite a sacrifice, I am sure, to this distant coast, to bring your deliberations to our midst, and to say that I know that in what I say I also express the equal gratitude of my co-workers in the various field of charitable endeavor in our city and in the northwest. We are grateful for your presence, we are grateful for your deliberations. I have been in many such congresses or conventions, and I think I never have been in one that has kept so steadfastly to its duty, and in which the sectional work as well as the general work has been so faithfully and earnestly directed to real ends. There has been no marking of time in any part of the work that I have been near, but steady progress and stepping forward with some endeavor to an earnest end.

We trust now that after such labors, after such self-sacrifice in coming so far, that you may take back from our coast and from the travels that you may be permitted to make, from

the rest and recreation that you will receive, that you will go back with fresh earnestness and fresh zeal, and with an increase of that fine, earnest optimism, that optimism which has been guarded also by serious knowledge of the difficulties which you are undertaking, that you may carry that back to your own work and continue as you have in the past to reflect over the whole country and over our part of the country your influence for the welfare of men and women.

THE PRESIDENT. — While this Conference has been in session there has been a Congress held here by representatives of the Methodist Episcopal church. They have passed resolutions of greeting, and have sent a committee here, and we shall have great pleasure in hearing from Rev. Dr. Rader, bearing this message.

DR. RADER. — The Methodist people of the Northwest, that is, we call it the Northwest, concluded that they knew but little about each other. Pastors had come from the east and knew their own parishes, and knew but little more; members had been used to association in their own churches, and knew nothing at all of the pastors outside of their own pulpits, and we thought it would be well to get together and have a Congress of Methodism.

After we had been together about ten days and were about ready to adjourn, it occurred to us that there was another gathering here and that this body had for its object about the same aim that we have, the amelioration of the conditions of those who suffer, and the alleviation of the race.

I bear you the greetings of that body, and tell you that, as far as we know you, we are in hearty sympathy with you. We do not know much about you, but we like the two words that you bear. We welcome the charity and we welcome the correction, providing it is the other fellow that is being corrected, and we hope that you will do all the correcting you can and deal with us as charitably as you may.

We think ourselves happy that we are well established in this Western land, and that we have a right here, because one of our members was a path-finder out this way. He was the first man who ever organized a Christian movement among the natives here, and we have been glorifying Jason Lee, and we have been trying to gather together some inspiration from him. We want to be helpful, as you do, to everybody and everything. We greet you and bid you godspeed.

THE PRESIDENT. — It is a little outside the record to receive congratulations from an ecclesiastical body, but we are so glad to have the preachers pay any attention to us at all that we are glad to have them come in even at the close to say God bless you.

Now Mr. Johnson, the Secretary of the Conference, has many things to say unto you, but ye cannot bear them now. He will have to crowd them into five minutes.

Mr. Johnson. — Always some of us go away, a little disappointed, there are so many things there was no time for that we would like to have said. One good sister, for instance, has been here all week trying to find time to tell us about a movement to have anæsthetics and other appliances carried on every train, as they carry the ax and the sledge hammer, so that when there is a collision and some poor fellow is pinned down and burning to death he can be relieved of his pain. Others have been trying to say other things and have not found time, we have been so fully occupied.

Mr. Strong talks about the problems in their incipiency. I came here fifteen years ago and found them fully developed then, because I inspected his hospital and penitentiary and found problems as old as any in Ohio and in Indiana.

Dr. Wise, we cannot do everything when we come together. We must be satisfied to let some things go over until next time. We must do what we can. I think we have had a splendid Conference of the busiest kind. We have had more. We have had a time of good-fellowship and the same heart-warming that has come so regularly during these many years. We are glad to have been together and sorry to part. We are sorry to leave our kind friends in Portland.

Now, Brother Strong, you know we brought you three hundred people from the other side of the Rockies, to be correct, three hundred and nineteen, and you met us with only one hundred and fifty-one here. Surely then two-thirds of our work might be fairly concerned with the eastern side and one-third with this. But we have done the best we could for Portland, and everybody all over the country. It is one great big country; it is not a lot of places; it is not east, west, north and south; it is one great blessed United States. We all belong together, and our problems are practically the same.

I have only to thank you very much indeed for the way you have treated me, and the way you have made it so easy to conduct things and keep things going. Good night, and good-bye.

The President. — The time has come now to turn our faces toward the future. There is a lady here who came and saw and conquered. I introduce Miss Richmond, of Philadelphia.

Miss Mary E. Richmond. — This has been a lucky coast for me. It was at San Francisco that this Conference was persuaded to come to Baltimore in 1890, and there, at my first Na-

tional Conference and after, I was permitted to see what such a body as this could do for a city. It meant the beginnings of many things that are still developing. This was several years before the great civic revival in Baltimore, and now I am again your debtor, because the Pacific Coast has faced this Conference toward awakened Philadelphia. The other night I sent a dispatch just after the vote was taken, and there were three words of the permitted ten unused. No woman, I believe, ever countenances such waste, so I added the three words, "Tired but happy." After a strenuous week among you, that phrase describes my state.

Just a word as to what won the victory. It was nothing that we offered you in the way of entertainment, sight-seeing and a general good time, nor was it our promise to increase your membership. Such selfish or semi-selfish reasons carried little weight, and one cause of my happiness in this victory is that again, as many times before, the Conference has decided to do the right thing for the best reason. Our Pennsylvania delegation found that the argument carrying most weight with you was the argument of a city aroused, at last, and struggling bravely to cast off the shackels of the gang. Since Philadelphia showed this desire to help herself, every member of this Conference, true to its traditions, was eager to help her.

We can promise you a large Conference, we think. There are many advantages in a small one, but if, as a body, we are to go forward and take the part we ought to take in shaping the social work of the next ten years, it is important that we meet every few years in a great center of population where the strife is at its thickest. It is the purpose of our state delegation to do everything possible to increase your membership, so that when you come to the far West again, it will be not with three hundred and odd across the Rockies, but with a thousand at least.

Then again we are near the seat of government, and near that noble man who sent a message to Congress last December which was practically a Conference of Charities document. From him and from the workers nearest to him, this Conference should gain new inspiration for the work before it.

You change so rapidly, and are so responsive to the best thought of your own membership that, after only a year's intermission in my attendance, I find a new spirit among you. The old spirit, a spirit of intense loyalty to the work of our individual and several sections, was well illustrated by our General Secretary, Mr. Johnson, when he told about his first Conference. He happened to confide to an older member that the charity organization section seemed to him so much more interesting

than any of the others; to which confidence the member replied, "My dear fellow, one of the most delightful things about this National Conference is that each man thinks his own section is the best." May we not keep all that is best in that spirit while we do everything to foster the new spirit of unity that I seem to find among you? In the section of needy families we are coming to see better than ever before the great importance of the wise administration of public charities, of the adequate care of defectives, of the national questions of child labor, juvenile delinquency and immigration. All of these affect our work so vitally that we are in little danger of giving too exclusive attention to our own subject, and the same is true of other sections, I feel sure. The new spirit has its embarrasments. We go home tired, but impressed anew by the possibilities of the field that we all hold in common and in common are to cultivate. We should also go home happy.

THE PRESIDENT. — At the opening session last Saturday I stated that in my judgment the program to be offered was the best program that the National Conference ever had. At the close I think that that promise has been fulfilled. I believe that when the volume is printed it will be found to contain more new matter of a valuable character than any other single volume up to this time. In making that promise and setting my faith in its fulfillment, I did not mean to claim any credit to myself, because the program was made almost wholly by the chairmen of the various committees, so that my work has been largely nominal. Really, there is very little work about being President of the National Conference — very little work and a great deal of distinction. I want to thank you all for your very great interest and courtesy.

I wish to introduce Mr. Devine, of New York, President of the next Conference.

MR. DEVINE. — *Mr. President:* On behalf of your successors, whom I may be said for the moment to embody and typify, I wish to congratulate you on the successful Conference we are just closing. Half way across the continent, a little way south of St. Paul, there is a college in which both you and I, sir, have been students. I have no doubt it will cause some surprise there, and I hope, some little feeling of local satisfaction, that when you turn over the gavel of this great national body, it is to pass it on to another of the least of her sons. This is only a coincidence, though it is a personal bond, sir, between us. I refer to it in order that those of the great Mississippi valley and those of the great middle west, who come to the Philadelphia conference, may realize that they will find among the general officers of the Conference more than one of their own number.

Socrates, the ancient philosopher, described himself as engaged in the profession of the midwifery of ideas: he said it was his business to help people to give birth to their thoughts. I cannot claim for myself any such exalted function, but if I were asked to tell what I have to do in the world of charity, I might say that among my frequent duties was that of a sort of midwifery of social movements, committees, enterprises, institutions, agencies of various sorts, all of which have the common object, that their purpose is to make more tolerable the conditions of those who suffer, to take from weak shoulders burdens too heavy for them to bear.

Directly out of the multiplicity of interests which such work brings, arises a certain faculty for sympathizing with almost any group of people with whom I come in contact. I am sure that the Charity Organization people think that I am very much of a Relief advocate and that the Relief Societies think that I have rather extreme views in favor of Charity Organization. I find myself in the heartiest accord with the system represented by the State Boards of Control and at the same time in complete sympathy with the Boards of State Charities, and so I might go on through all the list of the interests which the Conference represents.

Why I refer to all this is because, as far as I am charged with the conduct of next year's Conference, I want to ask the support of the Chairmen of the Committees, the Executive Committee and all the Officers of the Conference, in making it absolutely and actually representative, absolutely and actually national in its scope and character. It is the hope and the dearest wish of every one who looks forward to a bright future for this Conference, that it shall not be provincial, that it shall not represent any exclusive clique or group of interests, but that it shall be as broad as the nation, as deep as the interests of the suffering dependent ones who look to us for sympathy and succor.

I have quoted Socrates, may I quote him again. He is reported as having said to his pupils: "The sayings of the wise men of old we unroll and con together, culling out what good we may, but gaining indeed a great gain if meantime we grow dear to one another." In this National Conference it is something for us to read and to hear the papers and to take part in the discussions; it is a great thing if we come to understand and to know one another and to be able to work together for the good of mankind.

I bespeak the support and hearty co-operation of every one who is now connected, or who ever has been connected, with the

National Conference of Charities and Correction in making the greatest possible success for the conference next year in Philadelphia.

I thank you very heartily for the honor you have conferred upon me. It is an office neither to be sought nor declined.

The Conference then adjourned *sine die.*

SECRETARY'S ANNUAL FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS FROM JUNE 1ST, 1904, TO JULY 1ST, 1905.

DR.

June 1st, 1904, balance on hand		$930 53
1904-1905.		
To sales of proceedings	$924 69	
To sales of bulletin	1 00	
To sales of badges	101 50	
To sales of reprints	52 00	
To contributions	1,093 14	
To memberships, 1903	122 50	
To memberships, 1904	1,429 99	
To patrons, 1904	50 00	
To memberships, 1905	1,377 08	
To patrons, 1905	699 30	
To memberships, 1906	2 50	
Total Receipts		$5,850 70
		$6,784 23

CR.

1904-1905.		
By Treasurer's expenses	$1 75	
By Salaries of Secretary and clerk	1,589 32	
By General expenses	94 89	
By Postage	230 87	
By Insurance	16 50	
By Printing and Stationery	240 60	
By Telegraphing	26 32	
By Secretary's traveling expenses	177 60	
By Press Reports	100 51	
By Office Furniture	66 50	
By Publishing Proceedings	3,358 08	
By Publishing Bulletin	547 02	
By Publishing Reprints	46 54	
Total Disbursements		$6,496 50
July 1st, 1905, balance in Treasury		287 73
		$6,784 23

Audited and found correct as far as it relates to the Secretary's books.

TIMOTHY NICHOLSON,
HASTINGS H. HART,
Auditing Committee.

Portland, Oregon, July 20th, 1905.

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

(Revised to July 31, 1905.)

N. B.—Members who were in attendance at Portland, Ore., are marked *.

SUSTAINING MEMBERS.

CALIFORNIA.

Los Angeles.

*Lindley, Dr. Walter, Pres. Bd. of Trustees, Whittier State School, 1414 S. Hope St.

San Francisco.

Banning, R. R., 305 Larkin St.

CONNECTICUT.

New Haven.

Farnum, Prof. Henry W.

Waterbury.

Hillard, Miss Mary R.

DELAWARE.

Wilmington.

Bancroft, Wm. P.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington

Kibbey, Miss Bessie, 2025 Mass. Ave.

ILLINOIS.

Chicago.

Adams, Mrs. George, 530 Belden Ave.
*Hart, Hastings H., LL. D., Supt. Ill. Ch. Home and Aid Society, Unity Bldg.

Geneva.

*Amigh, Mrs. Ophelia L., Supt. Industrial School for Girls.

INDIANA.

Logansport.

Nelson, Mrs. John P.
Rice, E. S., Sec. Co. Bd. of Char. & Corr.

Marion.

Wilson, J. Wood.

KENTUCKY.

Louisville.

*Sehon, George L., Supt. Children's Home Society, Masonic Temple.

MARYLAND.

Baltimore.

Levering, Eugene, 1308 Eutaw Place.
Newcomer, Waldo, P. O. Box 552.
Shippen, Dr. C. C., 603 N. Charles St.
Wilmer, Miss Helen S., Johns Hopkins Hospital.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Boston.

Brackett, Jeffrey R., 41 Marborough St.
*Evans, Mrs. Glendower, 12 Otis Place.
Hunnewell, Walter, 87 Milk St.
Lee, Joseph, 101 Tremont St.
Lyman, Arthur T., P. O. Box 1717.
Mason, Miss Ida M., 1 Walnut St.
Morse, Miss Frances R., Trustee Paupers' Institutions, 12 Marlborough St.
Paine, Robert Treat, 6 Joy St.
Putnam, Dr. Charles P., 63 Marlborough St.
Rogers, Miss Annette P., 5 Joy St.
Wigglesworth, George, 53 State St.

Brookline.

Doliber, Mrs. Thos., Oakrise.

Pittsfield.

Nickerson, Rev. Thos. W. Jr., 78 East St.

Springfield.

Southworth, C. H.

MINNESOTA.

St. Paul.

*Smith, Samuel G., Ph. D., LL. D., Pres. 32d N. C. of C. & C.

NEW JERSEY.

Elizabeth.

Williamson, Mrs. E. E., Pres. State Charities Aid Association. Chief Prob. Officer Union Co.

Hoboken.

Alexander, Mrs. Archibald, Castle Point.

Montclair.
The Altruist Society.

Short Hills.
Hartshorn, Mrs. Stewart.

So. Orange.
O'Connor, Rt. Rev. J. J., Bishop of Newark.
Van Wagenen Bleecker, Pres. Associated Charities of the Oranges.

NEW YORK.

Bath.
Davenport, Mrs. John.

Brooklyn.
Pouch, F. E., 305 Adams St.
White, Alfred T., 40 Remsen St.
White, Miss Frances E., 2 Pierpont Place.

Buffalo.
Hamlin, Mrs. Wm., 1058 Delaware Ave.

Castile.
Letchworth, Hon. W. P.

New York City.
Benjamin, Eugene S., 49 Lafayette Place.
*Bijur, Nathan, Vice Pres. United Hebrew Char. of N. Y., 34 Nassau St.
Canfield, George Folger, 49 Wall St.
Cox, C. F., 54 E. 67th St.
de Forest Robert W., 30 Broad St.
*Devine, Edward T., Ph. D., LL. D., Gen. Sec. C. O. S., Editor of *Charities*, Dir. School of Philanthropy, Professor Social Economy, Columbia Univ.
Dodge, Mrs. Arthur, Pres. Fed. of Day Nurseries, 125 E. 39th St.
Dodge, Rev. D. Stuart, 99 John St.
Dodge, Miss Grace H., 262 Madison Ave.
Ford, James B., 4 E. 43d St.
Guggenheim, Wm., 71 Broadway.
Hubbard, Thos. H., Mills Bldg., 35 Wall St.
Huyler, John S., 64 Irving Place.
Jackson, Rev. S. M., 692 West End Ave.
*Johnson, Alexander, Associate Director of the School of Philanthropy, 105 E. 22nd St.
*Lee, Mrs. Fred S., Mem. Exec. Com. C. O. S., 125 E 63th St.
Low, Hon. Seth, 30 E. 64th St.
Macy, V. Everit, 68 Broad St.
Morgan, Mrs. J. Pierpont, 219 Madison Ave.
Mulry, Thomas M., 543 W. 21st St.
Schiff, Jacob H., 27 Pine St.
Schiff, Mortimer L., 27 Pine St.
Smith, W. Alexander, 412 Madison Ave.
Stewart, Hon. Wm. R., 24 W. 57th St.
Stewart, Wm. R. Jr., 24 W. 57th St.
Stokes, J. G. Phelps, 184 Eldridge St.
Sulzberger, Cyrus L., 93 Prince St.
Superior Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul.

OHIO.

Cambridge.
Sarchet, C. P. B.

Cincinnati.
Breed, Wm. J., 1227 W. 8th St.
Senior, Max, Mitchell Bldg.

Cleveland.
Mathers, Mrs., Samuel, 331 Euclid Ave.
Walton, J. W. 161 River St.
Wolfenstein, Dr. S., Ph. D., Jewish Orphan Asylum.

OREGON.

Portland.
*Adams, C. J.
*Ainsworth, J. C.
*Beach, F. E.
*Buchanan, Mrs. W. A.
*Burns, W. J.
*Burrel, W. F.
*Butterfield, Mrs. A. E.
*Cartwright, Mrs. C. M.
*Failing, Mrs. Mary.
*Eliot, Rev. Thomas L.
*Farrel, Robert S.
*Fleischner, I. N.
*Gilbert, Hon. W. B.
*George, Mrs. M. C.
*Hawkins, L. L.
*Hughes, Mrs. Ellis.
*Ladd, Charles E.
*Ladd, Wm. M.
*Lewis, Allen.
*Loewenberg, Mrs. J.
*Lombardi, Caesar.
*Manon, Mrs. P. T.
*Meier, A.
*Meier, Mrs. A.
*Meier, Emil.
*Meier, Frank.
*Mills, A. L.
*Morey, Mrs. P. F.
*Pittock, Henry L.
*Pittock, Mrs. Henry L.
*Roberts, Mrs. W. B.
*Robinson, J. C.
*Rockwell, Mrs. Cleaveland.
*Selling, Ben.
*Smith, Dr. Andrew M.
*Spalding, Miss Helen F.
*Stevens, Mrs. E. T. C.
*Strong, Thomas N.
*Wessinger, Paul.
*Wheelwright, W. D.
*White, Mrs. Levi.
*Wilbur, Mrs. N. M.
*Wilcox, Theodore D.
*Williams, Hon. George H.
*Winch, Mrs. Martin.
*Wise, Rabbi Stephen S., Ph. D.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Allegheny.
Robbins, Mrs. Francis L., 808 Sherman Ave.

Malvern.
Roberts, Mrs. E. L.

Philadelphia.
Bailey, J. L., 15 Bank St.
*Vaux, George Jr., 404 Girard Bldg.
Woodward, Dr. George, Children's Aid Society.

Pittsburg.
Buchanan, J. I., Conestoga Bldg.

Polk.
Murdock, Dr. J. Moorhead, Supt., W. Pa. School for Feeble Minded.

RHODE ISLAND.

Newport.
Sherman, William Watts.

WISCONSIN.

Manitowoc.
Rahr, William.

Menomonie.
Stout, Hon. J. H.

Milwaukee.
Bigelow, F. G., 657 Aster St.

ACTIVE MEMBERS.

ALABAMA.

Birmingham.
Allen, B. M., 1922 Third Ave.

Livingston.
Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Pres., Ala. Normal College, Livingston Ave.

Montgomery.
Harrison, Gladden, 706 Madison Ave.

Talladega.
Johnson, J. H., Prin. Ala. School for Deaf and Blind.

Tuscaloosa.
Searcy, Dr. J. T., Supt., Ala. Hosp. for Insane.

ARIZONA.

Bisbee.
Shields, Rev. Harvey M., Ph. D.

CALIFORNIA.

Agnew.
*Stocking, Dr. Leonard, Med. Supt. Agnew St. Hosp.

Berkeley.
Hallidie, Mrs. A. S., 2635 Channing Way.
*McLean, Rev. J. K.

Eldredge.
*Dawson, Dr. Wm. J. G., Med. Supt. Home for Feebleminded.

Los Angeles.
Brown, Julius A., 2317 W. 9th St.
*Bridge, Dr. Norman, Prof. Rush Med. College, Chicago.
*Conaty, Rt. Rev. Thomas A., Bishop of Los Angeles.
*Murphy, Mrs. W. W., Sec. Los Angeles O. Home, 1342 S. Union Ave.
Wright, W. A., 3415 Hough St.

Napa.
Stone, Dr. Elmer E., Supt. Napa St. Hosp.

Oakland.
Associated Charities, 1265 Franklin St.
*Brewer, Miss Anne W., 578 13th St.
*Cushing, Mrs. John M., Com. A. C., 920 Linden St.
*McLean, Miss Fannie, Mem. Council of A. C., 580 20th St.
*Pendleton, Miss Helen, Del. from San Francisco Girls' Training Home, Webster St.
Taylor, James P., 459 12th St.
*Whitney, Miss C. A., Sec. A. C., 808 Broadway.

Pasadena.
Burdette, Mrs. Clara B., Vice Pres. Humane Society.
*Fowler, Miss. Juv. Ct. Com., Los Angeles Co., 363 Grove St.

Redlands.
Hutchinson, Dr. Woods, University Club.
Sterling, Mrs. E. C., Crescent Ave.

Sacramento.
*Hatch, F. W., Gen. Supt. State Hospitals, P. O. Box 581.
*Pillsbury, A. J., Sec. St. Bd. Examiners.

San Francisco.
Asssociated Charities, 628 Montgomery St.
*California Club The, Mrs. Alice L. Park and Dr. Dorothea Moore, Delegates.
*Cushing, O. K., 104 Sutter St.
Davis, Horace, 133 Spear St.
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C. E. Haddox, Moundsville, W. Va.
Dr. Mary M. Wolfe, State Hospital for Insane, Norristown, Pa.
Dr. W. W. Hawke, Phys. in charge Insane Dept., Philadelphia Hospital, Philadelphia, Pa.

Neighborhood Work.

Mrs. Mary Roberts Smith, Chairman, 86 So. Park, San Francisco.
Mrs. Mary Wilcox Glenn, 617 Columbia Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Mrs. Florence Kelley, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
Miss Emily Dinwiddie, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
M. M. Woods, 230 So. 3d St. W., Salt Lake City, Utah.
Edmund J. Butler, Tenement House Dept., New York City.
Frederic Almy, 19 Tupper St., Buffalo, N. Y.
George A. Bellamy, Hiram House, 345 Orange St., Cleveland, Ohio.
Mrs. Raymond Robins, 372 W. Ohio St., Chicago, Ill.
Miss Caroline Macomber Crosby, 1616 N. Washington Ave., Minneapolis, Minn.
Miss A. F. Davies, 433 Christian St., Philadelphia, Pa.
John R. Cary, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.
Miss Hannah Fox, 339 S. Broad St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Carl Kelsey, Univ. of Pa., Philadelphia, Pa.
Mrs. F. J. Torrance, 946 Western Ave., Allegheny, Pa.

Defectives.

Edward R. Johnstone, Chairman, N. J. Training School, Vineland, N. J.
Dr. Samuel R. Cunningham, 1902 Highland Place, Indianapolis Ind.
Dr. W. H. C. Smith, Beverly Farm School, Godfrey, Ill.
O. S. Storrs, Com. of Charities, Denver, Colo.
Thomas C. Smith, 135 Broadway, New York City.
Dr. Martin W. Barr, Elwyn, Pa.
Dr. Arthur Jelly, 69 Newbury St., Boston, Mass.
Miss Elizabeth E. Farrell, Public School, Henry St., New York City.
Mrs. F. S. Streeter, 234 N. Main St., Concord, N. H.
Miss E. C. Putnam, 63 Marlboro St., Boston, Mass.
Miss Dora Keen, 1729 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.
John B. Curtis, 7437 Kimbark Ave., Chicago.
Dr. Frank E. Osborne, Inst. for F. M. Youth, Beatrice, Neb.
Frank H. Hall, Aurora, Ill.
Dr. J. Moorhead Murdock, Polk, Pa.
Edward E. Allen, Overbrook, Pa.

Charitable Finance.

Frank Tucker, Chairman, 105 E 22d St., New York.
T. D. Hurley, 3653 Grand Boul., Chicago.
George S. Wilson, Board of Charities, Washington, D. C.
Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md.
Owen J. Roberts, 1328 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Frank J. Firth, 373 Church Lane, Germantown, Pa.
Rev. Maitland Alexander, D. D., 3620 Forbes St., Pittsburg, Pa.
Robert H. Brookings, Cupples Block, St. Louis, Mo.
William C. Ball, Terre Haute, Ind.

Immigration.

Joseph Lee, Chairman, 101 Tremont St., Boston, Mass.
T. P. Thompson, 1812 Calhoun St., New Orleans, La.
Rev. D. J. McMahon, D. D., 239 E. 21st St., New York.
W. Almont Gates, 538 Parrott Bldg., San Francisco, Cal.
Robert deC. Ward, Harvard Univ., Cambridge, Mass.
Samuel J. Barrows, 135 E. 15th St., New York.
A. W. Gutridge, Assoc. Charities, St. Paul, Minn.
Miss Kate Holladay Claghorn, Ph. D., 81 Columbia Heights, Brooklyn, N. Y.
John H. Davis, Lincoln, Neb.
Max Herzberg, 802 Commonwealth Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.
A. M. Valerio, Hull House, Chicago, Ill.
Dr. George Woodward, Chestnut Hill, Philadelphia, Pa.

Statistics.

Amos W. Butler, Chairman, Board State Charities, Indianapolis, Ind.
Miss Lilian Brandt, Statistician Ch. Org. Soc., New York City.
Frederick L. Hoffman, Statistician Prudential Life Ins. Co., Newark, N. J.
Charles M. Hubbard, Associated Charities, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Miss Irene Osgood, 1243 E. Dayton St., Madison, Wis.

Training of Social Workers.

Jeffrey R. Brackett, Chairman, 41 Marlboro St., Boston, Mass.
Mrs. Emily E. Williamson, Elizabeth, N. J.
Charles H. Cooley, Ann Arbor, Mich.
Richard T. Ely, Univ. of Wis., Madison, Wis.
Frank A. Fetter, Cornell Heights, Ithaca, N. Y.
Charles R. Henderson, Univ. of Chicago.
Charles P. Neill, 1429 N. Y. Ave., Washington, D. C.
Graham Taylor, The Commons, Chicago, Ill.
Simon N. Patten, Univ. of Penn., Philadelphia.
Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, 457 W. 23d St., New York.

Children.

Hastings H. Hart, Chairman, 601 Unity Bldg., Chicago, Ill.
A. J. Hutton, Waukesha, Wis., Box 378.
James H. Eastman, Howard, R. I.
Grafton D. Cushing, Barrister's Hall, Boston, Mass.
Miss Grace Johnston, Redwing, Minn.
Hon. A. L. Fraser, Portland, Ore.
Mrs. Edward Morrell, Philadelphia.
Charles Hutzler, Richmond, Va.
Mrs. Emma L. Quinlan, 508 Oakley Boulevard, Chicago, Ill.
S. J. Hathaway, Marietta, Ohio.
Miss Ida L. Gregory, 1032 14th St., Denver, Col.
Joseph P. Byers, Randell's Island, New York.
Mrs. Lucy M. Sickles, Adrian, Mich.
Hon. A. W. Frater, Seattle, Wash.
Willis Brown, Judge Juv. Court, Salt Lake City, Utah.
C. W. Heuisler, 1109 Culvert Bldg., Baltimore, Md.
George B. Robinson, 415 Broome St., New York.
F. H. Nibecker, Glen Mills, Pa.
Mrs. Helen W. Rogers, 82 Court House, Indianapolis, Ind.
A. W. Clark, Omaha, Neb.
J. J. Kelso, Parliament Bldg., Toronto, Can.
Dr. Harriet B. Jones, Wheeling, W. Va.
Mrs. Deshea Breckenridge, Lexington, Ky.
Mrs. W. W. Frazier, 250 S. 18th St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Mrs. J. W. Martin, 1709 Walnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Miss Vida H. Francis, 6445 Greene St., Germantown, Pa.
Mrs. M. H. C. Mitchell, Mem. St. Bd. of Char., 288 W. Thames St., Norwich.

MEMBERS AND OFFICERS OF STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

ARIZONA.

[illegible]

Office Capitol Building, Phoenix.

[Organized under Act of [illegible]]

[illegible] Joseph H. Kibbey, ex officio, Phoenix; Auditor of State J. M. Carson, ex officio, Phoenix; [illegible], Phoenix; [illegible], Phoenix

Officers of the Board.

[illegible], President, Phoenix; [illegible], Secretary, Phoenix

CALIFORNIA.

[illegible]

Office Parrott Building, San Francisco.

[Organized by Act of [illegible] approved March 10, 1903.]

[illegible], Governor, Sacramento; [illegible], Berkeley; [illegible], San Francisco; [illegible], San Francisco; [illegible], San Francisco

Officers of the Board.

[illegible], President, 427 Washington, San Francisco; I. K. McLean, Vice President, Berkeley; [illegible], Secretary, Berkeley

COLORADO.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

State Capitol, Denver.

[Established by Act of 1899, approved March 17, 1901.]

[illegible], ex officio, Denver; Rev. Thomas H. Malone, Denver; [illegible], Denver; Hon. William Thomas, Breckenridge; [illegible], Denver

Officers of the Board.

[illegible], President, Denver; [illegible], Vice President, Denver; [illegible], Secretary, State Capitol, Denver

CONNECTICUT.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

State Capitol, Hartford.

[Established by Chapter 45, Public Acts of Laws of 1873, passed July 1, 1873.]

[illegible], Hartford; Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, New Haven; [illegible], [illegible]; E. H. Bulgamar, Norfolk

1903

Officers of the Board.

H. H. Bridgman, *President*.....Norfolk
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, *Agt. for County Temporary Homes*.....New Haven
Mrs. M. H. C. Mitchell, *Agt. for County Temporary Homes*.....Norwich
Charles P. Kellogg, *Secretary and General Agent*.....Waterbury

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BOARD OF CHARITIES.

Office, 464 Louisiana Avenue.

[Established by Act of Congress, approved June 6, 1900.]

S. W. Woodward.....Washington
George William Cook.....Washington
Dr. Charles P. Neill.....Washington
John Joy Edson.....Washington
Simon Wolf.....Washington

Officers of the Board.

S. W. Woodward, *President*..Washington
George S. Wilson, *Secretary*..Washington
Charles P. Neill, *Vice President*, Washington

FRANCE.

MUSEE SOCIAL, PARIS.

Wm. F. Willoughby, San Juan, Porto Rico, Correspondent.

GEORGIA.

THE PRISON COMMISSION OF GEORGIA.

Atlanta

[Established by Acts of 1897, passed Dec. 21, 1897.]

Joseph S. Turner.....Eatonton
Clement A. Evans.....Atlanta
Thomas Eason.....McRae

Officers of the Commission.

Joseph S. Turner, *Chairman*.....Eatonton
Jacob C. Moore, *Warden*.....Rome
Goodloe Yancy, *Secretary*.....Atlanta

ILLINOIS.

THE BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

State House, Springfield.

[Established by an Act of Legislature, approved April 9, 1869.]

William Jayne, M. D.....Springfield
Ensley Moore.....Jacksonville
Ed. A. Kelly, 4515 5th Ave.....Chicago
A. S. Wright.....Woodstock
H. C. Fairbrother, M. D.....East St. Louis

Officers of the Board.

William Jayne, *President*.....Springfield
Frank D. Whipp, *Assistant Secretary*.....Springfield
J. Mack Tanner, *Secretary*.....Springfield

INDIANA.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Room 52, State House, Indianapolis.

[Established by Chapter 37, Acts of 1889, passed Feb. 28, 1889.]

Timothy Nicholson.....Richmond
Sarah Stockton, M. D.....Indianapolis
William P. Cooper.....Ft. Wayne
Mrs. Carrie Goodwin Rexford.....Indianapolis
Demarchus C. Brown.....Irvington
Sydney B. Davis.....Terre Haute

Officers of the Board.

Gov. J. Frank Hanly, *ex officio President*.....Indianapolis
Amos W. Butler, *Secretary*...Indianapolis.

IOWA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, Des Moines.

[Established by Chapter 118, Laws of the 27th General Assembly, passed March 29, 1898.]

L. G. Kinne.....Des Moines
John Cownie.....South Amana
G. S. Robinson.....Sioux City

Officers of the Board.

G. S. Robinson, *Chairman*....Des Moines
F. S. Treat, *Secretary*.....Des Moines

KANSAS.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE OF KANSAS.

Topeka.

[Established by Chapter 475, of the Laws of 1905.]

Edgar B. Schermerhorn.....Galena
Harry C. Bowman.....Newton
Sherman G. Elliott.....Lawrence

Officers of the Board.

Edgar B. Schermerhorn.....*Chairman*
F. W. Knapp.....*Secretary*
Sherman G. Elliott.....*Treasurer*

MARYLAND.

BOARD OF STATE AID AND CHARITIES.

Office, Maryland Telephone Building, Baltimore.

[Established by Act, approved April 8, 1904.]

Ferdinand C. Latrobe, *President*,
Samuel Rosenthal, Jr.,
Thomas A. Smith,
A. Webster Smith,
John Lee Carroll,
Reuben Foster,
Frank V. Rhodes,
James R. Brewer, *Secretary*.

THE LUNACY COMMISSION.

819 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Md.

[Established by Chapter 487, of the Laws of 1886.]

Stewart Paton, M. D.....Baltimore
I. E. Atkinson, M. D.....Baltimore
Thomas S. Latimer, M. D.....Baltimore
Charles W. Wainwright, M. D., Princess Anne

Officers of the Board.

The Attorney-General, *ex officio*.

Thomas S. Latimer, M. D., *President*, Baltimore
George J. Preston, M. D., *Secretary*, Baltimore

MASSACHUSETTS.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 79, of the Laws of 1879, passed April 30, 1879. Amended by Chapter 101 of the Acts of 1886 and Chapter 433, § 24, of Acts of 1898.] See Revised Laws, Chapter 84.

Leontine Lincoln, *Chairman*...Fall River
Mrs. Henry G. Codman, *Vice President*, Brookline
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Edward Hitchcock, M. D., LL. D., Amherst
Laban Pratt.....Boston
Miss Frances G. Curtis.....Boston
Charles H. Adams.....Melrose
Charles R. Johnson.....Worcester
David F. Tilley.....Boston

Officers of the Board.

Joshua F. Lewis, M. D., *Superintendent of State Adult Poor*.....Boston
William P. Derby, M. D., *Superintendent of State Minor Wards*....Boston
John D. Wells, *Clerk and Auditor of the Board*.....Boston

STATE BOARD OF INSANITY.

State House, Boston, Mass.

[Established by Chapter 433, of the Laws of 1898, in effect October 1, 1898.]

George F. Jelly, M. D.....Boston
Seward W. Jones.....Newton Highlands
Col. Charles R. Codman.....Brookline
Albert L. Harwood.....Newton Centre
James B. Ayer, M. D.....Boston

Officers of the Board.

George F. Jelly, M. D., *Chairman*, Boston
Owen Copp, M. D., *Secretary and Executive Officer*.....Boston

THE BOARD OF PRISON COMMISSIONERS.

State House, Boston.

Frederick G. Pettigrove, *Chairman*, Boston
Arthur H. Wellman.....Malden
Mrs. Margaret P. Russell.....Boston
Henry Parkman.....Boston
Dr. Mary V. O'Callaghan.....Worcester
J. Warren Bailey, *Secretary Commissioners.*

MICHIGAN.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Capitol, Lansing.

[Established by Act 192 of the Laws of 1871, passed April 17, 1871.]

Fred M. Warner, Governor, *ex officio*, Saginaw
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, D. D., Grand Rapids
Hal C. Wyman, M. D.....Detroit
Henry P. Mowry, M. D.....Bronson
Chas. Lewis.....Jackson

Officers of the Board.

Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, D. D., *Chairman*.....Grand Rapids
L. C. Storrs, *Secretary*.....Lansing

MINNESOTA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, St Paul.

[Established by Chapter 122, Laws of 1901, approved April 2, 1901.]

Silas W. Leavett.....Litchfield
O. B. Gould.....Winona
L. A. Rosing..... Cannon Falls.

Officers of the Board.

O. B. Gould, *Chairman*.....Winona
M. C. Cutter, *Secretary*.....St. Paul

STATE LUNACY COMMISSION.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

Dr. Charles E. Riggs, *Chairman*..St. Paul
Dr. W. F. Milligan.....Wabasha
Dr. C. O. Cooley.....Madelia

MISSOURI.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Jefferson City.

[Established by Senate Bill 320 of the Laws of 1897, passed March 19, 1897.]

Alex. M. Dockery, Governor, Jefferson City
H. E. Robinson.....Maryville
Miss Mary E. Perry.....St. Louis
Dr. A. C. Pettijohn.....Brookfield
Mrs. Helen T. Thorpe.....Jefferson City
Ralph Wommack.....Bloomfield
F. V. Loos.....Liberty

Officers of the Board.

Alex. M. Dockery, *President ex officio*....Jefferson City
Miss Mary E. Perry, *Vice President*, St. Louis
Wesley L. Robertson, *Secretary*..Gallatin

NEBRASKA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS.

Capitol, Lincoln.

[Established by Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1877, passed Feb. 13, 1877. Provided in the State Constitution of 1875.]

Henry M. Eaton.....Lincoln
Norris Brown.....Lincoln
Peter Mortensen.....Lincoln
A. Galusha.....Lincoln

Officers of the Board.

Henry M. Eaton, *President*.....Lincoln
A. Galusha, *Secretary*.....Lincoln

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Concord.

[Established by Chapter 116 of the Laws of 1895, passed July 1, 1895.]

James F. Brennan.....Peterboro
Mrs. Ella L. Follansby.....Exeter
Oliver J. M. Gilman.....Alton
Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter.....Concord
Sherman E. Burroughs.....Manchester

Officers of the Board.

Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter, *Chairman*, Concord
W. J. Ahern, *Secretary*.....Concord
Miss Caroline E. Evans, *Clerk*...Concord

NEW JERSEY.

STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

629 Commercial Trust Building, Jersey City.

[Established by Legislative Enactment, March 24, 1899.]

Hugh F. Fox.....Plainfield
Joseph McCrystal.....Paterson
Frederick G. Burnham.....Morristown
Rev. J. R. Atkinson.....Elizabeth
Katherine E. Abbey.....Mount Holly
Emily E. Williamson.....Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams, *Secretary*..Trenton

Officers of the Board.

Hugh F. Fox, *President*.....Bayonne
Emily E. Williamson, *Treasurer*, Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams, *Secretary*..Trenton
Miss Frances Day, *Agent*.....Jersey City

NEW YORK.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 951 of the Laws of 1867, approved May 23, 1867. Re-established by Chapter 546 of the Laws of 1896, approved May 12, 1896. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Annie G. de Peyster.....New York
Michael J. Scanlan.....New York
Stephen Smith, M. D.....New York
Augustus Floyd.....Mastic
John Notman.....Brooklyn
Simon W. Rosendale.....Albany
Newton Aldrich.....Gouverneur
Dennis McCarthy.....Syracuse
Ralph W. Thomas.....Hamilton
Enoch V. Stoddard, M. D.....Rochester
William H. Gratwick.....Buffalo

Officers of the Board.

Enoch Vine Stoddard, M. D., *President* .....Rochester
Stephen Smith, M. D., *Vice President*, New York
Robert W. Hebberd, *Secretary*.....Albany
Robert W. Hill, *Superintendent of State and Alien Poor*.....Albany
William B. Buck, *Superintendent of Inspection* .....Albany

STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 283, Laws of 1889, approved May 14, 1889. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

William Mabon, M. D.....Albany
Daniel N. Lockwood.....Buffalo
William L. Parkhurst.....Canandaigua

Officers of the Commission.

Wm. Mabon, M. D., *President.*
Wm. L. Russell, M. D., *Medical Inspector*. .....Poughkeepsie
T. E. McGarr, *Secretary*.....Albany
George D. Sanford, *Auditor*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION OF PRISONS.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Chapter 1026, Laws of 1895. Amended by Chapter 12, Laws of 1901.]

John G. Wickser, *President*.....Buffalo
Edwin O. Holter, *Vice President*, New York
Cornelius V. Collins.....Troy
George McLaughlin, *Secretary*....Albany

NORTH CAROLINA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

Raleigh.

W. A. Blair, *Chairman*....Winston-Salem
E. L. Haughton.....Pollocksville
W. F. Craig.....Marion
A. C. McAlister.....Asheboro
Carey J. Hunter.....Raleigh
Miss Daisy Denson, *Secretary*....Raleigh

OHIO.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State House, Columbus.

[Established by Chapter 4, Revised Statutes of 1867, passed April 17, 1867. Amended April 12, 1898.]

Roeliff Brinkerhoff.....Mansfield
J. G. Schmidlapp.....Cincinnati
Rufus C. Burton.....Zanesville
Virgil P. Kline.....Cleveland
Jesse N. Oren.....Wilmington
Rutherford Hayes Platt.....Columbus

Officers of the Board.

Myron T. Herrick, Governor, *President ex officio*.....Columbus
Roeliff Brinkerhoff, *Chairman*..Mansfield
H. H. Shirer, *Secretary*.....Columbus

PENNSYLVANIA

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

[Established by Act of Legislature, passed April 4, 1869.]

Francis J. Torrance.....Allegheny
William T. Bell.....Mt. Union
Cyrus B. King.....Allegheny
J. Nicholas Mitchell.....Philadelphia
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
William B. Gill.....Philadelphia
Isaac Johnson.....Media
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
Ralph Blum.....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle.....Philadelphia
Samuel E. Gill.....Pittsburgh

Officers of the Board.

Francis J. Torrance, *President*..Allegheny
Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent and Secretary* .....Philadelphia

COMMITTEE ON LUNACY.

Isaac Johnson, *Chairman*.....Media
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
J. Nicholas Mitchell, M. D...Philadelphia
Cyrus B. King, M. D.....Allegheny
George I. MacLeod, M. D., *Secretary*....Philadelphia

RHODE ISLAND.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

[Established by Chapter 291, General Laws, passed May Session, 1869]

Walter A. Read.....Chepachet
George Lewis Smith.....Nayatt
James F. McCusker.....Pontiac
Ellery H. Wilson.....Providence
R. H. I. Goddard.....Providence
Philippe Boucher.....Woonsocket
John J. Watson.....Jamestown
Robert F. Rodman.....Allentown
Thomas W. Waterman.....Providence

Officers of the Board.

George L. Smith, *Chairman*.....Nayatt
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary*, Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Secretary's Office, Mitchell.

[Established by Chapter 5, Session Laws of 1890, passed March 6, 1890. Provided for in the State Constitution.]

W. E. Tipton.....Mitchell
Wm. M. Powers.....Yankton
D. C. Thomas.....Watertown
Jacob Schnaidt.....Menno

Officers of the Board.

Jacob Schnaidt, *President*.....Menno
W. E. Tipton, *Secretary*.....Mitchell

TENNESSEE.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

707 Pelmont Avenue, Nashville.

[Established by Chapter 193 of the Laws of 1895, passed May 13, 1895.]

Gov. James B. Frazier.....Nashville
James A. Orman, M. D., D. D...Nashville
Marcus Haase, M. D.....Memphis
W. R. Cole.....Nashville
W. H. Taylor, M. D.....New Market
Hugh W. Tate, M. D.....Bolivar
James B. Maynard.....Knoxville

Officers of the Board.

Gov. James B. Frazier, *President ex officio* .....Nashville
James A. Orman, *Secretary*.....Nashville

WASHINGTON.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

Olympia.

[Established by Laws of 1901, Chapter 119, H. F. No. 222.]

M. F. Kincaid.....Olympia
J. H. Davis.....Olympia
H. T. Jones.....Olympia

Officers of the Board.

M. F. Kincaid, *Chairman*.....Olympia
Chas. A. Burr, *Secretary*.

WISCONSIN.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

State Capitol, Madison.

[Established by Chapter 202 of the Laws of 1891.]

Gustav Küsterman, *President*..Green Bay
Herman Grotophorst, *Vice President*, Baraboo
M. J. Tappins, *Secretary*.....Madison
Allan D. Conover.....Madison
L. B. Dresser.....St. Croix Falls
Dr. Almah J. Frisby.....Milwaukee

WYOMING.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

State Capitol, Cheyenne.

Bryant B. Brooks, *President*....Cheyenne
Fenimore Chatterton.....Cheyenne
Thomas T. Tynan, *Secretary*....Cheyenne
Le Roy Grant.....Cheyenne
William C. Irvine.....Cheyenne
F. B. Sheldon, *Clerk*.....Cheyenne

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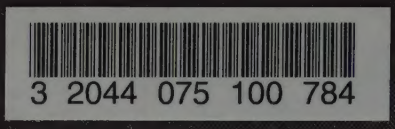
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